

Contemporary Psychology

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On Man's Goodness

Gordon W. Allport

Becoming: Basic Considerations for a Psychology of Personality

New Haven: Yale University Press, 1955. Pp. 106. \$2.75.

By JOSEPH ADELSON

Bennington College

ONE CAN SAY of this book that it is provocative, penetrating, altogether worth reading; and yet it is curiously resistant to a critical examination. It is very brief; it was written for a general audience; and its intention is frankly homiletic, swinging in mood between exposition and exhortation. It states a heartfelt opposition to most of the tendencies of current psychology. We are also offered a program for reform, which nevertheless remains but a program, not a system in full statement. The critic who would respond to Allport's positive proposals will need a more discursive presentation than this book intends. So the temptation is to report its contents, stress its many merits, and shy away from the work of criticism.

Its merits are those we have come to associate with Professor Allport's writings: style, scope, eloquence, erudition. This is, in the very best sense, a book in the nineteenth-century tradition of psy-

chology, in the spirit of William James, sharing his concern with the complex texture of experience, his disdain for preciosities of method, his wish to join psychology to a larger world of preoccupation.



GORDON W. ALLPORT

Here, all too briefly, is the book's thesis: Anglo-American psychology has long been dominated by the Lockean tradition, which sees the organism as reactive. "Since mind is by nature a tabula rasa, it is not the organism itself but what happens to the organism from the outside that is important." In the Leibnitzian tradition, on the other hand, the person is the source of acts, and activity is itself purposive. "To understand what a person is, it is necessary always to refer to what he may be in the future, for every state of the person is pointed in the direction of future possibilities." Allport considers that our commitment to the Lockean view has led us to neglect man's inborn dispositions. "If he is normally endowed the human infant will in time develop a conscience, a sense of self, and a hierarchical organization of traits." As regards socialization, Allport stresses the early affiliative needs which "are the ground of becoming, even in their presocialized stages. . . . Aggression and hatred, by contrast, are reactive protests, aroused only when affiliative tendencies are thwarted." While "disordered affiliative relationships may leave an ineradicable scar . . . for the child who enjoys a normal affiliative groundwork, and who successfully enters the more advanced stages of socialization, the situation is different. In his

case the foundations of character were established by the age of three or five, only in the sense that he is now *free to become*; he is not retarded; he is well launched on the course of continuous and unimpeded growth."

Allport then discusses a diverse array of topics which he feels have been neglected by psychologists: the concept of self, the ego's autonomy, conscience, values, and freedom. He concludes, in a fervent peroration, that the behavioral sciences "have not provided us with a picture of man capable of creating or living in a democracy. . . . They have delivered into our hands a psychology of an 'empty organism,' pushed by drives and molded by environmental circumstance. What is small and partial, what is external and mechanical, what is early, what is peripheral and opportunistic—have received the chief attention of psychological system builders. But the theory of democracy requires also that man possess a measure of rationality, a portion of freedom, a generic conscience, appropriate ideals, and unique value".

A VIGOROUS polemic; there is something in it to irritate almost everyone. In the way of polemics, there is a tendency to give short shrift to the opposition, simplifying its statement to suit the argument. (E.g., "the Freudians are disciples of Schopenhauer in accepting the primacy of a blindly acting will.") But granting this, and granting that the indictment is often overstated, that its animus is sometimes misplaced, it remains an impressive assessment of our deficiencies. Allport has an accurate eye for the soft spots of our doctrine. We do pay a high price in scope for the narrow beauties of precision. We do neglect the claims of phylogenesis. Above all, we are incompetent (more or less) to deal with the complex problems of self and consciousness, the ego-ideal, and active, autonomous ego functioning. Our failures, to be sure, are in great part due to the elusive nature of these problems, but to a considerable extent they derive from an absence of interest and intention. Outside of psychoanalytic ego psychology (whose contributions are barely mentioned in the book), our efforts have been exhausted in the service of such simplicities as "the self concept" and such

abstruse sentimentalities as "self-actualization."

Allport's proposed solutions are difficult to judge fairly, since it is outside his aim to present here a detailed, systematic position. Much of his argument is organized around polarities: autonomy-reactivity, individuality-tribalism, health-pathology, and many more. The method of resolution seems less synthetic than agglutinative. Allport urges us to a psychology that will retain both sides of the dichotomies. Unfortunately he provides insufficient recognition of the difficulties of additive eclecticism. A concept makes its claim upon the total system; it may contradict some alternatives, or it may require others. Here is an example: Allport accepts the defense mechanisms but offers no concept of a dynamic, striving unconscious. In the absence of amplification, we are led to wonder just what it is that the mechanisms are defending against.

Some clue to the character of this book, its strength and weaknesses, is discovered if we keep in mind its antinomic method. We hear a conversation between extremes, and Allport seems often to have been sacrificed to his role in the dispute. He is, for instance, so eager to persuade us to see the ego as agent, that he shows no interest in the ego as a derivative and makes no attempt to examine the effects of its derivation upon its role as agent. Similarly, his absorption in problems of classification and structure tends to slight seriously the problems of genesis and motivation.

The opposition, all too frequently, is heard and noted, yet inadequately confronted; it is, perhaps, confronted only from the partial perspective of dispute. We may observe this defect in Allport's treatment of cultural anthropology. His approach is defensive, seeking to show that the person is never merely a mirror of culture, but he also asserts himself against it. In this controversy Allport deploys himself against the whole discipline, seeing in it only a threat to the idea of individuality. He does not really recognize the science of culture; the hard questions it would ask he never meets. His conviction, that "the moral conscience, a self-concept, and a hierarchical organization of personality" are based on "stadia . . . carried in our natures as inherent possibilities," is more than likely to be correct; yet it involves,

after all, a radical biological universalism which at the least deserves a transcultural inquiry, not merely to dispute it, but to qualify and amplify it as well.

The antinomic mode is again evident in the handling of the dichotomy "normality and neurosis." While Allport at moments hints at the intricacies of the relevant interactions, the general tendency is to keep the categories separate; health and pathology are played off against each other, without mutual implication. The effect is to simplify and finally to obscure the extraordinarily subtle reticulation of the processes involved. Normality and neurosis gradually emerge as discrete modes of existence, the one characterized by productivity, achievement, and other accouterments of "creative becoming," the other by the manifold forms of human disorder. Yet, if the history of human achievement teaches us anything, it is that the great acts of "creative becoming" issue from men who, more often than not, we must view as disordered. While Allport makes much of human complexity, the ultimate complexity lies in what common experience tells us of men: that love and hatred, health and disease, greatness and squalor live within the skin in a tangled and often perilous coexistence.

Here I think we come to the root of the matter. The evaluation of *Becoming* is not likely to be based on a dispassionate examination of its conceptual system. Our response will be personal, empirical, dependent on how we construe and compose the human reality. Allport's theory is one which minimizes or denies the importance of unconscious processes, intrapsychic conflict, the ubiquitous consequences of early experience. To those of us for whom these and related concepts are at the very heart of our assumptions, Allport's views, whatever other advantages they may possess, will appear retrogressive, excising the hard-won knowledge of the last half-century.

AT THE CORE of this book—informing its rhetoric, assumptions, and message—is a commitment to a particular moral philosophy. Parrington called it "the doctrine of human excellence." Man is born without sin, aspiring to goodness, and capable of perfection; human evil is exogenous, the betrayal of man's nature by cruel circumstance. It is an old, tena-

cious idea. We find aspects of it in Plotinus and in the Pelagian heresy. In our own era its chief spokesman is, of course, Rousseau. It seems to enter American thought in the early part of the nineteenth century, primarily through theological and quasi-theological sources, and achieves a full flowering in the New England of the middle 1800's. From then on it is a persistent element in American belief, influencing theology, political theory, and social philosophy. Allport's is a late and sophisticated version, but retains the essentials: The "good" aspects of the human organism—reason, freedom, morality—are natural and emergent; the sources of human discord are exterior to the natural man.

The belief in man's goodness and perfectibility is, typically though not entirely, a doctrine of the frontier, of a culture in expansion or renaissance. At its best it lends hope and vitality to our undertakings; at its worst it is a dangerously sentimental view of our nature. As America settles into its maturity, we find that the doctrine is increasingly abandoned. The emergence of a conservative political theory, the toughening of liberal thought (as in Schlesinger and Trilling), the impact of Niebuhr's theology, the literary rediscovery of Hawthorne, Melville, the later Mark Twain—these separate tendencies have a common foundation, a mistrust of the treacherous illusions of optimism. The common question they ask is this: if men are naturally good, if human malice has its source only in circumstance, how do we account for man's infinite talent for disaster? The appeal of this counter-statement is empirical, an appeal to our own experience of everyday reality and to our knowledge of history in its catastrophic aspect. Can we accept a psychology such as Allport's, which, out of its high hopes for human destiny, remains insensitive to man's malign capacities?

However we respond to Allport's position, it is the greatest merit of his book that it makes its philosophical biases so very explicit and asks the rest of us to do the same. It makes clear moreover, that the psychology of personality is, at its outer limits, still largely in the realm of poetry. Thus we do well to choose our metaphors with exquisite caution, with a wary eye on our hopes and our suppositions.

Four New Texts in Psychology

Henry E. Garrett

General Psychology (Based in part on *Psychology*, 1950.)

New York: American Book Company, 1955. Pp. vii + 664. \$5.50. *Projects in Psychology* (student workbook) by Robert J. Williams and August A. Fink. \$1.75.

Harry W. Karn and Joseph Weitz

An Introduction to Psychology

New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1955. Pp. xi + 315. \$3.90.

Harry Ruja

Psychology for Life

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955. Pp. x + 427. \$4.75. *Teacher's Manual* by Harry Ruja. *Student Workbook* by Harry Ruja and Edmund C. Nuttal. \$1.50.

Delos D. Wickens and Donald R. Meyer

Psychology

New York: Dryden Press, 1955. Pp. vii + 541. \$5.25. *Teacher's Manual* by Harry P. Bahrck. *Student's Workbook* by Irwin A. Berg. \$1.35.

By CARL P. DUNCAN

Northwestern University

BEFORE we take up each book separately, let us make some general comparisons. In terms of their purposes the four books fall into two groups. Karn-and-Weitz and Ruja are both intended primarily for students taking a terminal course in psychology or for those in specialized curricula. Each is also somewhat restricted in coverage and is a fairly short book (less than 150,000 words). Garrett, and Wickens-and-Meyer provide a general survey of psychology to fit into liberal education programs and are also intended to provide preparation for advanced work. Each has comprehensive coverage and is a rather big book, although Garrett (about 160,000 words) devotes so much space to illustrations that he has considerably less text than Wickens and Meyer (about 200,000 words). Additional comparisons among the books will occasionally be noted, but for the most part the rest of the review is descriptive. In taking up each book a rough plan is followed which, it is hoped, will enable the reader to make his own comparisons.

Let us consider the two shorter books first, beginning with Karn and Weitz.

Their text has 13 chapters in which is included at least cursory mention of all the usual subject-matter divisions in psychology. Since the book is not large, this means that some topics, particularly the senses, nervous system, and most other physiological material, are discussed very briefly. With the biological topics largely left out, there remains reasonably adequate space to devote to the molar facts and principles, although the treatment of some of these is rather short.

The book is designed primarily for students "in engineering, education, business administration, and other curricula where a single semester's course" is called for. The authors are chiefly concerned with presenting the science of psychology, but throughout the book much attention is also paid to relating the principles discussed to student needs; the last chapter is devoted entirely to student problems. This dual approach, science and student needs, is handled quite well.

The text presents facts, not theory, and the exposition is fairly concentrated; instructors using the book will probably

find it necessary to expand on some of the overly abbreviated topics. The book is, however, not too difficult because it is, on the whole, interestingly and clearly written. The authors are to be commended for attempting to unify the material (mainly by frequent reference to principles previously discussed), for emphasizing measurement, and for not glossing over the meagerness of data on some topics. It is also in their favor that they resisted the recent textbook trend toward more and fancier illustrations; there are only 69 figures (all but one in black and white) and 14 unnumbered photographs. Except for a few of the photographs, the illustrations are relevant and helpful. The book has a slight flavor of industrial psychology and human engineering, which appears chiefly in the examples and illustrations and in the fine chapter on training.

The major fault of the text is its seeming lack of organization of topics within chapters. A number of chapters could be improved on this score, but particularly Ch. 12 (on tests), where there are too many topics, and Ch. 3 (perception) where, among other things, the topic of suggestion seems dragged in. Other objections are that the general characteristics of scientific method and experimentation are poorly explained in Ch. 1, and that the authors repeatedly imply in Ch. 3 that end-organ structure is largely or entirely responsible for sensory quality.

In general, Karn-and-Weitz is pretty good as a condensed, scientifically respectable, and interesting survey of psychology without much physiology. As the authors intended, the book would be more appropriate for terminal courses in specialized curricula.

RUJA's *Psychology for Life* has 24 short chapters organized into six parts. The parts and the number of chapters in each indicate something of the coverage and emphasis: introduction (2 chapters), learning and remembering (5), vocational choice and intelligence (5), thinking and perceiving (2), personality and motivation (4), emotions and mental health (6). Some chapters (but not all, as claimed on the jacket) include self-tests; these are usually in the nature of

questions on general knowledge or popular misconceptions. There is a combined index and glossary. The *Student Workbook* has objective and essay questions (with answers) and suggested projects for each book chapter. The *Teacher's Manual* has suggested exercises, films, and multiple-choice questions for each chapter.

Ruja leaves no doubt that, although he "tried to be faithful to the science of psychology," he is primarily concerned with student needs. The book as a whole is so strongly oriented toward student interests and problems of daily life that it is close to a popularization of psychology. In addition, there are some chapters that consist almost entirely of advice on some personal or social problem; a list of specific suggestions on what to do is expanded into a chapter by including a brief discussion with each suggestion. Psychology as science has some place in the book, but it is definitely secondary.

Ruja makes no mention of the senses or nervous system; in fact, he excludes most physiological material. The instructor using the book may want both to add other material and also to present a more scholarly view of psychology. The book is, however, easily read, at least sentence-wise, and it ought to be interesting to the student. It should certainly stimulate thinking about personal problems, but the bright student is not likely to be intellectually challenged.

Even if one agrees with the book's approach, he is likely to be irritated by its chopiness. The short chapters are so liberally sprinkled with center and paragraph headings that one feels constantly interrupted in his reading. Furthermore, in a number of chapters the order of the many sections seems to follow no particular plan: there is often little continuity from one section to the next. The fault is especially bad in Ch. 2 (Psychology as Science). This is a poor chapter all around, but the section on scientific method and experiment is especially weak and has too many topics that have little relation to each other. One other objection is that among the 100 illustrations, a few of the photographs and a couple of the cartoons are of very doubtful relevance.

To the reviewer, the most startling thing in Ruja's book was the self-test in

Ch. 21 (The Sick Mind). The heading, "How well adjusted are you?" is followed by a part (35 items) of the Student Form of the Bell Adjustment Inventory. One's score on this can be "interpreted" by means of frequency distributions showing scores arranged in five class-intervals with verbal labels ranging from "very unsatisfactory" to "excellent." Then, "If your score is below average, it may be wise for you to seek out help from your college psychological counseling center, a mental-hygiene clinic in your town, a psychiatrist, or a clinical psychologist" (p. 322). Is this portion of the Bell Inventory as good as all that? And is the procedure defensible in any case?

So, Ruja's book is neither a typical introductory nor a typical adjustment text. Perhaps it would fit cases where the first course taught is pretty much a practical course in adjustment.

GARRETT's *General Psychology* is based in part on his earlier *Psychology*, but the books are quite different. The present volume covers all of the usual subjects in its 15 chapters; there is no deliberate omission of any content area. Then there is a glossary in addition to author and subject indexes. The workbook which accompanies the text has a short preview, a review outline, a project or two, and some test questions for each book chapter. One of the projects is much like Ruja's self-test of personal adjustment.

Garrett's prefatory remarks indicate that he chose to be eclectic, not emphasizing any particular systematic position. As noted earlier, he writes primarily for students taking a program in liberal education, but he also intends to provide preparation for advanced work. The reviewer thinks that he has achieved all these purposes. The book is a well-written scholarly survey of psychology. It is thorough and has good balance; the major topics of both psychology and psychophysiology are presented without over- or underemphasizing any of them.

Garrett mentions theory occasionally but not excessively. He gives science and methodology excellent treatment, not only in the first chapter (one of the best introductory chapters in any elementary text), but throughout the whole book. The student's attention is often directed

toward problems of method, and he is occasionally shown that research findings may not be reliable. It was also pleasing to find that Garrett does not accept uncritically such topics as perceptual defense, the unconscious, repression, and selective forgetting of affective material. Usually he substitutes more naturalistic explanations.

The exposition is very clear, although there are a few cases where a section within a chapter ends rather abruptly, or with unanswered questions. Sufficient attention is paid to relating the material to student needs. Garrett makes no attempt to water down the text to make it easy, but his style is so clear that the book seems easier than it really is.

The reviewer liked nearly everything about the text of Garrett's book (even though the chapter on memory is not well organized). It was, therefore, disappointing to him to find that the illustrations detract considerably from the book's worth. The first point against the illustrations is that there are far too many—299 in all. If they were all drawn together they would take up slightly more than 25 per cent of the total pages. Spread out, they chop up the text. The impression of a surfeit of illustrative material is enhanced by the more than 250 photographs; well over half the illustrations are based on one or more photographs.

A more important question concerns the accuracy or relevance of the photographic illustrations (the line drawings are satisfactory). First, there are photographs which do not necessarily illustrate the point made in the caption, e.g., a picture of Hitler *seemingly* making a violent speech, with the legend that he represented an extreme example of controlling behavior through appeal to audiences' emotions. The caption may be true, but the picture does not illustrate it. Then, there are some photographs that add nothing to the point being made, such as a picture of a boy apparently taking care of a dog, with the legend that the child may learn responsibility by caring for an animal. Finally, there are rare cases where a photograph seems to have little connection with the text. (It is worth noting that examples of all three of these types can also be found in Ruja.)

All of the books reviewed here, as well

as most others recently published, contain at least a few useless photographs. Among the present group, Wickens-and-Meyer and Karn-and-Weitz are least at fault, but in Garrett's case the book would be vastly improved if nearly all the photographs were thrown out. Speaking generally of photographic illustrations, the reviewer's opinion is that there is little success in attempting to illustrate some activity by means of a still picture of an organism seemingly engaged in that activity. The viewer of such a picture could conclude that all it portrays is a skillful example of taxidermy.

Garrett's book is easily summarized. Textwise, it is one of the best general surveys of psychology. Without the photographic illustrations, it would be a superior introductory book.

WICKENS AND MEYER'S *Psychology* is considerably the longest of the four books. The over-all organization of its 20 chapters is such that the psychological or molar approach to behavior is presented in Ch. 1-15, and the biological material and molecular approach in Ch. 16-19. Chapter 20 is a short general summary. For some reason, three chapters have brief summaries; the rest do not.

The *Student's Workbook* has, for each book chapter, a brief (and often very interesting) orientation section, a list of terms and concepts, objective questions of all types with key, and some demonstrations, exercises, or projects. The *Teacher's Manual* has multiple-choice, true-false, and discussion-questions to go with each text chapter. For 10 chapters (but not for all, as claimed on the cover) there are suggested "teaching methods" (demonstrations, experiments, etc.). Also included is an annotated reference list of some of the recent literature on teaching introductory psychology, suggested films for each book chapter, and a list of film distributors.

Wickens and Meyer's main purpose is to present "a systematic and consistent description and interpretation of behavior," based on learning. Learning, including transfer and forgetting, is covered early (Ch. 2, 3, and 4), and considerable effort is made to show its explanatory value for almost every major topic presented. The authors' persistence

in this attempt to be systematic succeeds rather well, in part because they also wisely avoid trying to force everything into a rigid framework.

The coverage of the book is extremely broad. There is no separate section on statistics, but all of the usual subject-matters are reviewed. In addition, material not usually found in elementary texts is presented, e.g., response mechanisms and response variability. The instructor using the book may be hard put to bring in new content. There is, however, no attempt to be encyclopedic on every topic. On the whole, the book is well balanced in terms of emphasis.

The text is clear and well written, and, with a few exceptions, the organization within chapters is good. Nearly all the 154 illustrations are relevant and helpful. Scientific method is emphasized, but the authors rarely criticize the literature even when they should, such as in discussing the factors influencing forgetting.

The student should find the text interesting and about average in difficulty. He will meet occasional references to his personal concerns and how they may be understood in terms of psychological principles. The book should contribute materially to his liberal education.

One irritating thing about the book is the use of red color (apparently not the authors' idea); center heads, portions and legends of illustrations, running page titles, and various other items are in a bright red. The main effect of this is to make the book unnecessarily gaudy. Sometimes, though, the color is actually harmful. Thus, the organization, which is already not too good in Chs. 3 and 4 (the main chapters on learning) and especially in Ch. 1 (Method of Psychology) is still further weakened, because in each of these chapters red center heads, supposed presumably to indicate only major divisions, are used too frequently.

In general, Wickens and Meyer have written a book that scores good to excellent on nearly all counts. It is scientific, systematic without rigidity, clear, sound, and thorough. In spite of the red color, it is a good introductory text.

As a final comment, we may note that these four books represent respectively their authors' position on one or another of the many questions that are frequently raised about the approach to be taken in the first course. Should the

course emphasize science or personal adjustment? Ruja chooses the latter. Should the same course be taught to all, or, as Karn and Weitz think, should it be tailored somewhat for students in specialized curricula? Should we present psychology as it is, in its eclectic and unsystematic state (as Garrett believes), or should we try to find some unifying thread (à la Wickens and Meyer)? The variety of approaches to be found among current textbooks stems in large part from lack of agreement on such issues as these.

Trudging Back to Reality

Bruno Bettelheim

Truants from Life: The Rehabilitation of Emotionally Disturbed Children

Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1955.
Pp. vii + 511. \$6.00.

BY THELMA G. ALPER

Wellesley College

PSYCHOLOGISTS who work with seriously disturbed children will find that Dr. Bettelheim's *Truants from Life* not only corroborates much of their present-day thinking concerning the etiology of ego disturbances in young children, but also that it brings into sharp focus the special problems such children present in therapy. It is the treatment aspect which forms the central core for this book. Having devoted an earlier text, *Love Is Not Enough*, to describing the educational and therapeutic philosophy of the Orthogenic School, Dr. Bettelheim now focuses on the techniques used in rehabilitating four school-age schizophrenic children from the time each child entered the school until he ultimately returned either to his own family or to a contrived family in a treatment home.

According to orthodox Freudian theory, school-age children should be in the latency period of psychosexual development. But the life experiences of the children under discussion here have been such that even the earliest stage of ego development has not been normal. All of these children have experienced the severe emotional deprivations now

commonly recognized under the terms *maternal deprivation* and so vividly described for younger age groups in the writings, for example, of René Spitz, Margaret Ribble, and John Bowlby. These are the rejected, unloved, unwanted children who frantically search for the 'good' parents, do not find them in reality, yet in phantasy never entirely give up the search. This relationship is particularly clear in the case of Harry whose delinquencies are at last understood to center on this search. He started to run away from home, even before he was four, to avoid a severely punitive, rejecting mother and an abusive, alcoholic father. He felt safer away from home, safer from adult aggressions and safer from his overwhelmingly strong wishes to hurt others. But the compulsive aspect of his trancies and his behavior during a given truancy episode can be understood only through a recognition of the basic dynamics of his running away—for years he habitually had ended up in a movie theater where the dark, enveloping warmth served as a temporary substitute for the loving parent.

The scientist concerned with the search for common causes of schizophrenia in childhood will note that Dr. Bettelheim agrees with Escalona that constitutional or other factors inherent in the child may prevent him from responding adequately to the ministrations of a parent who wants to be loving. Such children may cause the mother eventually to withdraw her ego investment in the child in order to prevent further narcis-

sistic hurts. None of the cases presented by Bettelheim, however, supports this position. He would seem rather to join in the current, nearly wholesale denunciation of parents of so-called problem-children parents, who, because of their own emotional difficulties, are totally incapable of providing a healthy emotional climate for the child. Perhaps the admission policies of the Orthogenic School now rule out cases which fit Escalona's conditions, or perhaps really serious ego disturbances in children always do involve severe maternal deprivations. The answer is still not known.

AT THE PRESENT TIME, children with recognized organic involvements are ordinarily not accepted by the School unless the involvement is aggravated by psychological factors which are judged to be treatable. Such is the case with John who provides an especially good example of symptom choice. An excessively infantile and dependent boy of five and a half, he was unable to walk or talk when he entered the School. These symptoms, and one which the parents found even harder to accept, anorexia, had no physical basis. Repeated neurological studies yielded negative findings. Evidence that the symptoms had a psychological basis, however, abounded. John was an unwanted child, a sorry substitute for an idealized first son who had died at the age of eight months after a short illness. The thrush mouth infection which developed when he was a week old served as an excellent outlet for parental feelings. According to hospital records the infection responded to treatment within a few days and the infant was discharged. Yet, with the excessive caution characteristic of parents who overprotect the child in order to reduce their own guilt feelings over rejection, John was given only eye-dropper feedings for the better part of a year. Eating was a slow, painful and ungratifying experience made even more unpleasant by the frequent, unnecessary gentian violet throat paintings and forced feedings before and during emesis. Little wonder that John refused food. Yet the anorexia only served to strengthen parental rejection.



BRUNO BETTELHEIM

The most important contributions of the book center on the treatment aspects, the slow, often disheartening, attempts to wean these children away from their feelings of having no value to anyone and, hence, no value to themselves. Treatment is an around-the-clock process to which counselor, classroom teacher, play therapist and director all contribute. Quite properly, therefore, the book is dedicated to the School's staff. Without the selfless devotion of the whole staff, and of the child's counselor in particular, these children could not recover. The counselor, much more than the play therapist, serves as a loving, protecting parent substitute who is literally always available to the child.

The damage of the unhappy past can best be mitigated if these children can now be accepted unconditionally, as it were, and at last experience the good parent and a happy babyhood. Paul, aged ten, for example, had never known a family life. Placed by his mother in a nursery soon after birth, removed when her guilt over having abandoned him became too great, 'parked' with unwilling neighbors and friends and finally ending up in an austere orphanage, he felt alien to everything and everybody. When he arrived at the School he seemed completely unreachable. Detached, infantile, suicidal, homicidal, given to ear-splitting screaming when frustrated, this emotionally starved, autistic child had to learn slowly that he could trust at least one person, his counselor, to protect him against himself and against the other children. Eventually, having learned how to relate himself to her, he can begin to establish relations to others, even to his dormitory mates with whom to some extent he must share his counselor.

Rehabilitation is slow, often requiring several years. Testing-out is frequent; the demands are monopolistic. Harry runs away from the School almost nightly, his counselor patiently following after to protect him from harm. Eventually he learns that someone does care what becomes of him. John regurgitates his food repeatedly, messing himself and his counselor in an effort to test her acceptance of him. Mary can engage in the simplest activities if her counselor but sits closely by, hour after hour, for Mary must have constant reassurance that she will not again be deserted by a



THE BOYS, AS A CONSEQUENCE OF THE SCHOOL ATMOSPHERE, NOW ACCEPT EACH OTHERS' VARIED ACTIVITIES AS A MATTER OF COURSE.
(From *Love is Not Enough*, by Bruno Bettelheim.)

melancholic mother. Believing herself responsible by her aggressive acts for her mother's death, Mary needs protection against the acting-out of her hostile urges, for only so can she exchange her schizophrenic behavior patterns for neurotic ones. And in her case this is the treatment's goal. For others, more complete recovery is looked for. For all, the goal is to help these children achieve through identification with loving parent figures the inner controls which will permit them to lead relatively normal lives after they leave the School. The follow-up material on these four cases reveals the extent to which these goals are realized.

The discussions centering on how the counselors feel about their charges reveal the extent to which the counselors' conscious and unconscious needs are satisfied through their work. This is an all-too-often neglected aspect of the treatment process.

That the rehabilitation process is painstaking and slow is reflected not only by the content but also by the style of writing in this book. Often repetitious, usually wordy, always it is leisurely. Perhaps this pace is by design for it clearly adds to the over-all impression that rehabilitation of emotionally disturbed children must not and cannot be hurried.

Post Kinsey, Propter Kinsey

Abram Kardiner

Sex and Morality

New York: Bobbs-Merrill, 1954.
Pp. 266. \$3.00.

BY JOHN P. SPIEGEL

Harvard University

ABRAM KARDINER is a practicing psychoanalyst who is best known for the distinguished contributions he has made to our understanding of the complicated interrelations in the field which has been labeled 'culture and personality.' In his two major publications in this area, *The Individual and His Society* (1939) and *The Psychological Frontiers of Society* (1945), he opened up new territory by demonstrating the potential fruitfulness of a detailed collaboration by workers in the fields of psychoanalysis, clinical psychology, cultural anthropology, and sociology. He showed how the careful comparison of personality development in a number of different cultures enriched—theoretically and at the applied level—our understanding of both the intrapsychic process in the individual and social mechanisms of the larger group.

Sex and Morality is the author's attempt to apply the methods and insights developed in his earlier publications to the much discussed area of contemporary sexual behavior in our own culture. It is somewhat unfortunate that he chose the term *morality* to qualify his major topic in the title, since his aim is much broader than that usually denoted by this concept. Stimulated primarily by the work of Kinsey and his associates, he presents a complex social and psychological analysis of the mechanisms responsible for the changing sexual practices as Kinsey reported them.

The sweep of his analysis entails an examination of virtually every aspect of contemporary American culture. Unlike the earlier publications, his analysis does not rest upon the secure foundation of an empirical study conducted in the field, but is composed of generalizations supported by illustrations from a wide variety of contexts. Thus the tone of the book is that of a lecture by a man of deep insight and experience who has

thought long and hard about a perplexing topic. In keeping with the general tone, the style is light, discursive, and clearly directed toward a popular audience. There is a minimum of references to source material, and no bibliography or index.

Behind the light and frequently amusing manner, and the off-the-cuff comment on a variety of topics, lies a serious and indeed rather somber purpose. The author is deeply concerned about the significance of the facts reported by Kinsey. He interprets the change in sexual mores, and especially the rise in male homosexuality, as symptoms of deep social distress. He sees sexual behavior as a function of social conditioning and represents the contemporary manifestations as arising from serious difficulties in the conditioning process. The ultimate purpose of his book is thus to analyze the origin of the difficulty in the current structure of our society and to attempt to prescribe a remedy.

THE ANALYSIS is initiated with a definition of morality that makes the concept equivalent to 'custom' as understood by the anthropologist. This is to say that all the activities within a culture are functionally interrelated for purposes of the adaptation or survival of the society and receive their sanction because of the functional relationship. It is known that customs have points of origin and are responsive to social forces which result in change. This generalization Kardiner applies to the case of sexual customs as described by Kinsey for both males and females in our society. The 'facts' as reported by Kinsey he largely accepts, though he has considerable criticism for the identification of the clitoral orgasm with full potency in the female. Kinsey's 'interpretations,' however, he rejects as being too biologically oriented and thus ignoring both the psychological meaning and the cultural significance of sexual behavior. Kinsey he describes as "a behaviorist armed with a computing machine," interested only in what can be counted. On the other hand, he criticizes strictly Freudian interpretations of the same sexual behavior as reported by Kinsey on the grounds that, although they deal with

private meanings of the behavior, they ignore the public settings and the social forces which govern the behavior.

Kardiner discusses the social forces that he assumes are pertinent. The principal social change has occurred, he thinks, in the 'feminine role.' Feminism, a logical outgrowth of nineteenth-century liberalism, he holds responsible for the change in the sexual practices of the females. Although the former subjugation of women would not seem desirable, current female demands upon the male for equal status appear to cause grave difficulties for both sexes. The responsibility for achievement in the male role, heightened to a degree impossible to fulfill, produces frustration, rage, and a "flight from masculinity." For the woman, it results in disappointment in the male, and a neglect of her motherhood role in the overcompensatory attempt to find fulfillment in career or work. The "absentee mother," the author holds, is the most damaging factor in this web of relations. Other damaging variables are the sexual repression of children through terrorization (less prevalent now than two generations ago), the feminization of the father, and the over-all confusion in social preparation of both sexes. The impact of these variables is analyzed for the case of male homosexuality, regarded as the most typical symptom of the difficulty.

These difficulties are not to be ascribed to the operation of any person, agency, or sect. They are held to be the inevitable outcome for both sexes of a narrow preoccupation with the achievement-oriented and materialistic values of an industrial society. The prescribed remedy is directed to parents: they are advised to immunize themselves against this narrow set of values, to restore motherhood to its rightful dignity without sacrificing feminist gains in other areas, to treat their children as human beings rather than objects to be manipulated for the sake of economic ambition and social prestige, and to listen to the advice of psychiatrists about human relations.

THIS BRIEF sketch, of course, does not do justice to the skill with which the argument is posed and elaborated. Nevertheless the critical or skeptical reader will find much to question, not only

where particular points are concerned but also with the validity of the general thesis. Most of the generalizations are flatly stated with little supporting evidence.

One example among many is the statement that the mother role has little prestige and is largely neglected. This has to be taken as the author's opinion since no empirical studies are cited as evidence. Other writers have come to opposite conclusions. E. R. Groves states that "concentration on family affairs is still expected of the conventional married woman to a degree that the mores do not demand of the married man." Talcott Parsons and R. F. Bales say that "the isolation of the nuclear family focuses the responsibility of the mother role more sharply on the one adult woman. . . . Hence it is suggested that the differentiation between the roles of the parents becomes more rather than less significant for the socialization process under modern American conditions."

Nevertheless the line between established fact and the author's opinion is so vague that the reader hardly knows what of the general thesis to accept and what to reject. For scientific understanding it would have been better had the author presented his argument less dogmatically, for a more tentative approach would have enabled him to point out the areas of special significance as well as the problems for future research. These difficulties with substantive empirical generalizations do not, however, reduce the value of the book as a whole for a popular audience. It succeeds in attaining its aim of showing that sexual behavior cannot be understood as an isolated phenomenon but has to be grasped in the total context of the individual in his society, and that neither moral indignation, terrorization techniques, nor even common sense can be substituted for a correlated analysis of the biological, psychological, and social causes of behavior.



The expression it stands to reason usually means that there is no evidence.

—D. A. WORCESTER



Experimenter's Primer

John C. Townsend

Introduction to Experimental Method

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1953. Pp. 220. \$4.00.

By DAVID EHRENFREUND

The State College of Washington

THE PURPOSE of this book, according to the author's preface, is "to develop in students an early appreciation of the theory of scientific method and statistics." Although modesty may have inhibited the author from indicating the breadth of scope intended, the publisher assures us that "all philosophical, pragmatic, and statistical information prerequisite to the design, conduct, and interpretation of experiments are presented." It would have been better had the publisher left well enough alone.

Despite the author's conviction that "theory and content can be successfully taught simultaneously," discussion of the specific is intentionally lacking. Reference is made to only seven journal articles, all of which appear in one chapter, *Methods of Inference*. These papers are, moreover, not cited for their content but rather to illustrate various methods used by researchers. Thus, the text is devoted almost entirely to philosophy of science, methodology in general, psychophysics and statistics.

The book's organization in terms of the topics included is admirable enough. Their sequence may not meet with the approval of many who teach elementary experimental psychology but is none the less well thought out. In Part A, after a discussion of science, logic and explanation, the student is told where and how to find problems. In Part B he is told how to reduce them to experimentally testable hypotheses, what controls to be aware of, how to proceed in the actual experiment, what kinds of apparatus are most likely to be available, and, for the actual write-up, there is reproduced a form which five psychologists developed over a two-year period. In Part C the student finally discovers what to do with the data statistically and is even supplied with detailed work sheets for t , χ^2 and r .

In the event that all of the foregoing is not enough and the student still needs some guidance, he is supplied with a model to follow in the form of a *Report of Two Well-written Experiments* which constitutes Part D. There is also an appendix of tables—squares and square roots as well as the significance levels for the statistics.

What else does the beginning student need, besides a laboratory, to start turning out research papers? This sounds like a Compleat Baedeker or a Do-It-Yourself. Before the reader gets very far, however, he may become suspicious of a failure to take advantage of recent and not so recent developments in the area of philosophy of science. Despite the promise that the student will be given "the opportunity to become sensitive to the ways of critical thinking," such terms as *deduction*, *induction*, *explanation*, *truth*, *valid*, *basic postulates*, *inference*, *cause and effect*, *hypothesis* and *theory* receive so tortured and contradictory a treatment, that critical thinking concerning them is precluded. Thus, inductive logic although it "starts with the observation of phenomena, it ends with proof that the evidence justifies the conclusion" (p. 8). This point of view has certainly been ignored by logicians and philosophers.

"Hypothesis: If A is B then C is D.

"Experimentation: Observation or experimentation shows that C is D.

"Deduction: If there is no alternative explanation, A is probably B" (p. 9).

If the author is serious, he is committing the fallacy of asserting the consequent. This is not inconsistent in a text that identifies hypotheses with postulates and then goes on to insist that if "the basic postulates are not capable of being proved or disproved, then any system of logical explanation built on them may be right or wrong" (p. 10). By now the reader should be set for some such statement as "an example of an explanation of the principles of behavior as deduced from behavioristic data is . . ." (p. 10) and not be too surprised by it.

Later on (Ch. 5) we are told that it is hypotheses that are tested. In fact, one of the few bright spots is a discussion of the various criteria for acceptable hypotheses including capability of disproof. Toward the end of this chapter a really

good beginning is made on the role of theory, the relation of theory to hypotheses, and the value of theory in discovering new facts. Unfortunately, the discussion reverts to the level of the first ten pages. "There is no better way to test whether the theory... allows the researcher to predict new facts than... by calling it a hypothesis and appealing to fact" ... (p. 51).

THIS WHOLE discussion is related to the problem of explanation. In one sense it vacillates between pre-Hume and post-Hume in a manner suggesting disappointment over failure to discover what Schlick calls the "glue" between cause and effect. Despite strong warnings and some excellent arguments against inferences about cause and effect as commonly conceived, pre-Humian ghosts appear later to mar an otherwise adequate treatment of experimental methods of inference. They again materialize toward the end where the decision to accept or reject the null hypothesis is no different from deciding "whether or not the independent variable caused the difference between the two groups" ... (p. 155). This statement also does not make it clear as to whether the decision is statistical or experimental, but perhaps no distinction is intended.

In another sense, the explanatory issue is confused by the dual assertion that "the best description" is an operational definition and "the best possible definition... would contain a description of all relevant factors and their relationships to the phenomenon" (p. 23). As it turns out it does not matter anyway, since we are assured in the next sentence that "seldom is this high level of explanation required." The author's reference here is to Feigl's contribution in the 1945 issue of the *Psychological Review*, devoted to the *Symposium on Operationism*.

Other features of the book deserve no more than passing mention. The chapter on apparatus is drawn largely from Warren's dictionary (1934), supplemented with photographs from Stoelting's catalogue. It is quaint but also harmless. This and the following chapter, called *Conducting the Experiment*, are clearly space fillers in a book that cannot afford them.

The section on statistics contains less than thirty pages. One obviously may not expect more than the briefest and most elementary treatment, one which is adequate for its purpose and should therefore be without any serious errors. There are perhaps a couple of minor mistakes but they are hardly serious.

One other item puzzles this reviewer. There is a fairly comprehensive list of journals in psychology and related sciences. The author reveals his reading tastes by placing an asterisk before those journals that he finds most useful. There is no asterisk before the *Journal of Experimental Psychology*. This might be due to a proofreader's error, but it might not be.

Social Relations in a Hospital

Alfred H. Stanton and Morris S. Schwartz

The Mental Hospital

New York: Basic Books, 1954. Pp. xx + 492. \$7.50.

BY NORMAN D. SUNDBERG

University of Oregon

THIS IS a book which demolishes its title. Clearly, the term *mental hospital*, narrowly interpreted, has become a misnomer. Those concerned with the care and treatment of the 'mentally ill' can no longer think of *patients, wards, health, therapies*, etc., in the way they would typically think when dealing with appendicitis or cancer. Furthermore, they can no longer think they are dealing only with the individual 'mind.' This book of Stanton and Schwartz demonstrates the necessity for also conceiving of the mental hospital as a social situation of such power that the daily actions of patients and staff members are in themselves strong therapeutic and anti-therapeutic agents.

The book is founded on a conception of the hospital as a community—a conception which is still rare in psychiatric and psychological thought. I dare say, if one observed the speech and writing of a typical psychiatrist or clinical psychologist and tabulated the number of his words referring to an individual, a col-

lection of individuals, or the parts of an individual, and if one compared this number with the number of words referring to interaction of individuals, social units and other social variables, he would obtain a ratio overwhelmingly in favor of the single person and his parts. Perhaps such a ratio would be as it should, considering the fact that the clinical psychologist and psychiatrist have assumed the cultural role of dealing primarily with individuals. Yet one wonders how effective psychologists and psychiatrists can ever be unless they pay much more attention to the setting in which the individual lives.

Stanton, a psychiatrist, and Schwartz, a sociologist, started off with this basic proposition: "At least some aspects of the disturbance of the patients are a part of the functioning of the institution." Their problem was to study the effect of hospital life on the patients and vice versa, with a weather eye out for implications for psychiatric administration. The locus of their investigation, which was supported by the U. S. Public Health Service, was Chestnut Lodge Sanatorium, a sixty-bed private hospital widely known as a Sullivanian psychoanalytic training institution. Much of their study was focused on the disturbed women's ward of which Stanton was in charge. The people on the ward, in addition to the investigators, included on any one day approximately 15 women patients—mostly difficult and chronic cases—and 5 or 6 nurses and aides. The book about this group is a 492-page result of five and one-half years of study (2 years of data collection, 3½ years of analysis)—principally of this ward and the influence of the wider hospital community on it.

How best to study a hospital community? The investigators chose mainly an intensive, long-term observation of subjects *in situ*. Their separate techniques are not new, but the extensive application of them to the living hospital situation is new. Stanton was the regular ward psychiatrist; Schwartz spent his time observing on the ward, where he was known by all to be conducting research. Much of the data considered most valuable came from the authors' diaries and notes on their daily formal and informal contacts with patients and staff. In addition to this naturalistic, ob-

servational core of information, data were also taken from hospital records, from special interviews, and from a few systematic surveys, such as a survey of therapeutic outcome. In all, the authors collected 9000 single-spaced pages of notes and 3000 pages of statistical data.

Aware of the dangers of participant observation, the authors mention their own involvement in the situation, the likelihood of bias, selective perception, and the distortion of the situation due to the presence of the investigators. They frankly reveal their own roles. They point out how fellow workers at coffee breaks might bring them information which they thought important for the study. They mention that the psychiatrist under the stress of his hospital duties would fail to record information systematically and promptly. Despite all of these possibilities for error and misinterpretation, the authors feel that their data present a true enough picture for them to generalize to the institution and even to characterize other mental hospitals to a large extent.

THIS PIONEERING study has unusually great value as a demonstration of an institution's effects on interpersonal events within it, as a plea for more attention to sociological factors, as an orientation toward the treatment of the mentally ill, and as a stimulating and insightful way of generating hypotheses in this field. It illustrates well a wide range of problems in a mental hospital: the overemphasis on 'the hour' of psychotherapy and the lack of attention to the other 23 hours of the patient's day, the conflicts between institutional needs and patients' needs, the lack of consistent handling of patients due to high turnover among nurses and aides, the informal blocks in formal lines of communication and execution of orders, the interpersonal difficulties arising from practical limitations of space and facilities, the unrecognized disagreements between staff members, the conflicts over special treatment for some patients. The roles of the doctor, nurse, and aide are explored and there is an interesting but brief analysis of the role of the patient. The book goes a long way towards laying bare the feelings and thoughts of the hospital staff in a way that must have taken considerable ego strength on the part of many people. At

times the reader has the feeling that he is really 'in on' the local gossip. The study itself seems to have been therapeutic for the hospital and must have generated much re-evaluation of the hospital procedures. A follow-up on its effects would be interesting.

One of the most exciting and suggestive accounts in the book is the part describing the planned manipulation of a patient's reputation. At staff conferences and other occasions, the administrator criticized the commonly held views of a severely schizophrenic woman, accentuated certain positive features, and saw to it that she be given new opportunities. The patient then dramatically improved but relapsed when the administrator had to leave the ward. The book suggests that an important factor in the ultimate failure was the fact that other personnel did not go along with the administrator on his ideas. Another interesting manipulation of social variables was the introduction of a project secretary to the ward for a period of time and the observation of the effect of that change on the way the nurses spent their time. Still another highly interesting undertaking was the demonstration of a relationship between the degree of disagreement between important staff members and the degree of pathological excitement in the patients. There was also a study of the time spent in various activities by the nurse in charge of the ward. The study, which contrasted actual times with staff members' estimates, showed an underestimation of her importance as a liaison person between staff and patients. All in all there are many interesting aspects of this study which are suggestive of further social experimentation.

The study also brings out some of the difficulties of the exploratory survey. A large unwieldy mass of data is produced which is difficult to organize. It is to be hoped that the authors will elaborate later on their methods and make more suggestions for others who might like to undertake this kind of work. They treat such questions as sampling and inter-observer reliability very scantily, and their statistics are reported almost entirely at the level of raw data or percentages.

Both the study and the book suffer somewhat from limitations in scope. The authors pay but little attention to patients' activities outside the ward, to

such hospital activities as occupational and recreational therapy, to the work of the clinical psychologist, and to the relation of the hospital to the larger community surrounding it. The generalizability of their conclusions to other hospitals is, of course, a large question. This small psychoanalytic hospital where patients pay \$850 a month is far from being a representative mental hospital.

Stanton and Schwartz did not avail themselves of some of the benefits of the broader interdisciplinary approach. They might well have made use of insights gained from studies of other organizations, such as industrial concerns and prisons. In a book heavily concerned with administrative problems, some discussion might have been made of the literature on administration with its present emphasis on human relations and informal factors in organization—matters which are much the same as what this book is pointing out.

The book itself is easy to read and is enlivened with many quotations and examples. It is also somewhat repetitious and could have been shorter. The appendixes on methodology, related studies, and discussions of concepts could have easily been incorporated in the main body.

Already the book has provoked enough favorable discussion throughout the country to suggest that it is on the leading edge of a social movement in the study of mental illness as a social disorder. Such study fits in with the present trend of the *Zeitgeist*—a concern with problems of interaction. Mental institutions can be attractive to those studying social and psychological interaction because of the relative isolation and control of social relations in them. Such studies are, of course, time-consuming and expensive, yet they are very important. In the light of the rising popularity of psychopharmacology, one can, however, foresee some fierce competition for the development of a basic methodology exact enough to give more clearcut answers to society's pressing problems. One would hope that social and clinical psychologists will join with anthropologists, sociologists and psychiatrists in developing more research based upon these broad conceptions of mental illness and its treatment. For those interested in such an endeavor, *The Mental Hospital* will be most insightful and challenging.

The Behavioral Trend

John T. Wilson, Clellan S. Ford,
B. F. Skinner, Gustav Bergmann,
Frank A. Beach, and
Karl Pribram

**Current Trends in Psychology
and the Behavioral Sciences**
Pittsburgh, Pa. University of Pittsburgh Press, 1954. Pp. xvi + 142.
\$4.00.

BY GLEN FINCH
National Research Council

THIS is the eighth volume of the University of Pittsburgh's series of current trends in psychology. Like the preceding volumes, it consists of lectures by a number of people who attempt (1) to examine psychology to see how it is interacting with other sciences, (2) to assess the current state of development of psychological science, and (3) to prognosticate where psychology is going and what it may be expected to accomplish. The series may be characterized generally as interdisciplinary in emphasis and as 'spotty' in coverage at this point in time. Obviously the lack of comprehensive coverage is not a shortcoming of the series since its objective as a review is to provide context for the presentation of the science's growth and trends. In this respect these volumes contrast with the Stanford *Annual Reviews* and the *Psychological Bulletin*.

The present volume is made up of six lectures delivered under the auspices of the Department of Psychology in The College of the University of Pittsburgh on March 11 and 12, 1954. The introduction is by Robert A. Patton who develops the point that communication fails among research workers who are specialists in the various behavioral sciences because they do not use identical terminology. Failure of communication results in lack of coordination in planning research and in ineffectual mutual stimulation. It does not lead to collaboration. The lectures to be reported were designed to "clarify some specific problems and describe important work in areas linking psychology to other scientific areas."

The lecturers and their subjects are:
1. *Psychology and behavioral science.*

John T. Wilson, National Science Foundation.

2. *Some potential contributions of anthropology to psychology.* Clellan S. Ford, Yale University.

3. *The science of learning and the art of teaching.* B. F. Skinner, Harvard University.

4. *Reduction.* Gustav Bergmann, State University of Iowa.

5. *The individual from conception to conceptualization.* Frank A. Beach, Yale University.

6. *Toward a science of neuropsychology (method and data).* Karl Pribram, Institute of Living.

Six blind men examining an elephant are said to draw diverse and strange conclusions about the nature of the beast. Six behavioral scientists, each conditioned by individual training, interest, and experience might be expected to evaluate diversely the status of psychology and the behavioral sciences. Unlike the fabled blind men, the behavioral scientists of this volume, although focusing on different aspects of the subject, arrive at unstrange and remarkably consistent conclusions. Each demonstrates insightful appreciation and understanding of the work of other specialists. Still Patton's point about common terminology remains valid, for, after all, three of these lecturers would claim primary identification as psychologists and would be so identified (John T. Wilson, B. F. Skinner, Frank A. Beach); one is a mathematician-philosopher-logician-psychologist (Gustav Bergmann); one is a neurophysiologist (Karl H. Pribram); and one is an anthropologist who has been working with psychologists for years (Clellan S. Ford). These six, commendably, speak about that which they know best. They expertize only where they are experts. For the most part each draws heavily upon his own work for the substance of his lecture. Among behavioral scientists, psychologists, at least, can understand all these lectures.

Thus the lectures communicate a feeling that the behavioral sciences are becoming unified, that they are reaching a point of development where major discoveries are now possible, where new understandings are about to develop, and where man will begin to profit as never before from behavioral research. The lecturers use different expressions to convey this.

For example, Wilson talks about "a striking synthesis of knowledge in the behavioral science domain." Ford's words are "a new social psychology whose principles and theories will be everywhere applicable to the people of the world." Pribram points to the "emergence of a common framework relating physiological and behavioral science." Beach finds "no fundamental discontinuity between pre- and postnatal existence nor between the physical and psychologic [sic] aspects of the individual." Skinner says: "There is a simple job to be done. The task can be stated in concrete terms. The necessary techniques are known. The equipment needed can easily be provided. Nothing stands in the way but cultural inertia. . . . We are on the threshold of an exciting and revolutionary period, in which the scientific study of man will be put to work in man's best interests. . . ."

This book is readable, provocative, stimulating.



Pastoral Guide

Vergilius Ferm

A Dictionary of Pastoral Psychology

New York: Philosophical Library, 1955. Pp. 336. \$6.00.

BY JOHN DIXON COPP
Boston University School of Theology

THE BOOK is of use, chiefly, to those religious workers who are seeking specific technical knowledge in psychology, and guidance in the art of understanding others, relating to them and communicating with them. More specifically, it would seem to be for readers who have newly awakened interests in this field.

There is much accurate defining, and the system of cross references is of help, but in certain portions of the book, where topics are dealt with which are most relevant to the needs of the beginner, there is, not instruction, but preaching (p. 158), and when cases are presented there would seem to be an unfortunate lag behind the best counseling wisdom (p. 185).

CP SPEAKS . . .

LAST OCTOBER Volume II of the ninth edition of *American Men of Science*, the volume for the *Biological Sciences*, came out. The one for *Physical Sciences* appeared a year earlier and the third volume, that for *Social Sciences*, is predicted for next August. These big and but slightly smaller volumes are a little easier to handle than the elephantine single volume of the eighth edition, although the convenience is considerably diminished when you find yourself looking for a name in the wrong volume. There had, however, to be a split and as usual in such fissions Psychology turns up on both of the ragged edges.

Actually, if you consider area of the pages of these volumes, the *Physical Sciences* alone (Volume I) need 1350 sq. ft. in 1955, which is only 150 sq. ft. less than all science in 1949. If you take weight, *Physical Sciences* in 1955 weighs 8 lb. 8 oz., which is more than a pound heavier than the lesser area for all science in 1949.

Most of the psychologists will find themselves in Volume III classed as social scientists, along with the anthropologists, economists, geographers, historians, political scientists, sociologists and statisticians—a miscellaneous congeries, whether you call it *Social Science* or, to avoid the *odium liberale* of the term social, you try to give it a biological tinge by calling it *Behavioral Sciences*, after the manner of the Ford Foundation. It is probable that more psychologists would have been content in Volume III had it been named *Behavioral Sciences*, but it is impossible to say just now which of the conservative right-wing experimentalists among the psychologists are going to object to being housed with *social scientists*.

CP thought to get some light on this matter by looking up in Volume II, *Biological Sciences*, the names of the 296 Fellows of the Division of Experimental Psychology of the APA. Only 18 of them, presumably by their stated preferences,

are grouped with the biologists. CP wrote to these eighteen and sixteen of them replied. The real physiologists, like Hallowell Davis, are perfectly content to be quartered with the biologists. Their association with psychology is secondary. Strong psychological biotropes like Klüver are also content. Lashley is content but wants the other psychologists brought into the biological volume, or at least the biotropes; but psychobiologist Yerkes is going to turn up as a social scientist next summer. Those biotropes who are primarily identified with psychology either want all the psychologists kept together in one volume or else a double entry, with the principal account in one volume and a cross reference in the other. Perhaps it is not too late for psychologists in Volume II to ask now for a cross reference to II from III, but the time is past for adding cross references to III from II, which is already published. The Editor of *American Men of Science* writes CP that he would like to see all "psychologists" embedded in the same volume in the next edition, but he does not say which volume nor reveal the magic formula that determines who is a psychologist.

Well, knowledge is continuous, and the disciplines and sciences are only social institutions which erect their artificial in-group barriers to provide a feeling of imperfect security for the scholars as they face the appalling expanse of all wisdom. Psychologists have been fissioned before, and now they are again. Perhaps in this way they will be advantaged by these constant reminders that important knowledge heeds none of these artificial institutional limits. Anything that helps destroy the iron curtains of the sciences might be good in the long run.

FLASH! Word from a usually reliable source has it that Volume III of *American Men of Science*, due out next summer, will seek to quiet the protests of the bio-

tropic psychologists in it by changing its title to *Social and Behavioral Sciences*. That might make some of the biotropes content to return to association with the psychologists, at least in the tenth edition. The term *behavioral science* was invented to get rid of the *odium liberale* of the social sciences, but now it is acquiring among the biotropes an *odium sociale*. Perhaps this new change can help to sweeten it for all. Who knows?



CHARLES MORRIS' *Signs, Language, and Behavior*, published by Prentice-Hall in 1946, has been taken over and reprinted by George Braziller as of 1955. "Although Professor Morris's style of writing makes for difficult reading," says George Miller in response to CP's request that he say a word about the significance of this volume, "this is one of the most important books in the area of behavior. It is," he says, "to date, the most serious attempt to bring together the results of behavior studies by psychologists with those of philosophers and logicians in the field of semantics."

Recently Pocket Books sent CP the no. 3 issue of *The Pocket-Book Magazine*, a 35-cent paperback that gives you over 2000 words for a cent. Half of this issue, five articles, is psychology, if you take *psychology* as broadly as does the journal that you are now reading, and pretty good psychology too, although the different essays can, of course, be ranked as better and poorer. The Editor liked best a sober, wise excursion into dynamic psychology, which paradoxically had the most lurid title, one featured on the cover: *The Sexual Failure of the Beautiful Woman* by Milton Sapirstein, a psychoanalyst, and Alis de Sola, a Barnard summa cum.

In January the word from Appleton-Century-Crofts was that Leona Tyler's *The Psychology of Individual Differences* was scheduled for January in a greatly enlarged second edition, that Hilgard's *Theories of Learning*, also in an enlarged second edition, was due in February, and that Florence Goodenough has coming in March a brand-new book on exceptional children, one which the publishers believe will stand almost alone in the field.

—E. G. B.



Brain and Consciousness

J. F. Delafresnaye (Ed.)

Brain Mechanisms and Consciousness: A Symposium

Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1954. Pp. xv + 556. \$8.50.

By PHILIP TEITELBAUM

Harvard University

“**W**HAT RIGHT have we to connect mental experience with physiological?” To paraphrase Sherrington’s answer to his own question: “No scientific right—only the right of busy common sense.” It is by this right that the investigators who participated in this symposium have contributed their research findings toward the understanding of the phenomenon of consciousness.

The book presents neurophysiological and behavioral evidence relevant to a discussion of consciousness. The bulk of the recent neurophysiological evidence concerns the functions of the reticular formation. Therefore, ten of the eighteen papers on the symposium devote themselves to this topic.

H. W. Magoun, G. Moruzzi, and others demonstrate that there exists in the reticular formation of the brain stem a mechanism which seems closely related to the waking and activating functions of the brain. Stimulation of this area results in behavioral arousal from sleep and EEG desynchronization patterns that duplicate the changes seen when passing from the sleeping to the waking state. Destruction of parts of this system produces disturbance of consciousness in various forms—coma, sleep, and akinetic mutism.

H. H. Jasper and others discuss the mid-line and intralaminar nuclei of the thalamus. They show that these nuclei exert a diffuse effect upon the cortex, being able to control the electrical rhythms in widespread regions of the cortex. Such nuclei are to be contrasted with the specific relay nuclei of the thalamus that transmit afferents to relatively well-localized projection areas in the cortex. Stimulation of the unspecific nuclei produces the recruiting response of E. W. Dempsey and R. S. Morison; i.e., successive increase in amplitude of cortical response with

repetitive stimulation at frequencies close to the frequency of the spontaneous rhythms of the cortex. It is possible, according to Jasper, that the elaboration of response of sensory cortex to afferent impulses over the sensory pathways can be regulated by existing activity in the unspecific system.

On the behavioral level, W. R. Hess presents evidence that, in a region of the diencephalon partly overlapping with that producing the recruiting response, electrical stimulation causes sleep. Hess takes this as evidence for a diencephalic sleep center, antagonistic in function to the arousal system postulated by Magoun. Frederic Bremer, on the other hand, believes that the process of falling asleep may be explained, without recourse to the postulation of a sleep center, by a neuronal de-activation resulting from synaptic fatigue and reduction of sensory stimulation.

Wilder Penfield and his co-workers at Montreal have obtained data by use of electrical stimulation of the cortex in patients suffering from epilepsy. Stimulation of the temporal lobe evoked a reproduction of past experience or a sudden alteration in the interpretation of present experience. Both types of response, experiential and interpretive, according to Penfield, point to the existence of a permanent ganglionic recording of the stream of consciousness. These findings have caused him to hypothesize the existence of a centrencephalic system with equal functional relationships with the two hemispheres which seems to be located in the diencephalon.

IT is heartening to see the accumulation of evidence about areas of the brain that have remained inaccessible for so long. The recent development of histological and electrophysiological techniques have given a big push to research upon subcortical functions, and show promise of uncovering information relevant to higher processes. However, it is still premature to pair brain mechanisms and consciousness. The molecular nature of most of the neurophysiological data do not help much in understanding complex patterns of brain function. They point out which areas seem to interact, but do not shed much light on the nature of that interaction. We have here a situa-

tion where a great many combinations of single-neuron events are conceivable. The paucity of facts about complex mental processes, however, provides little guide to the types of integrative combinations which must be involved.

The fact is that we know practically nothing about variations in the phenomenon of consciousness. We have no names for the states which lie between complete consciousness and coma. In the attempt to relate EEG patterns to consciousness, we make consciousness the independent variable and let the EEG record be the dependent variable; but it is practically impossible to point to discrete variations in the state of consciousness, other than the fact that the subject is asleep or awake. Consequently, practically all the EEG records tell us is that slow waves of large amplitude characterize sleep and that disruption of these waves signifies alertness and attention to a particular stimulus. Although H. Gastaut, for instance, asserts that different EEG patterns reflect different personality types, it is apparent that as an index of the molar electrical activity of the brain the EEG is still not suitable for fine differentiation of patterns of brain activity. W. Grey Walter, recognizing this fact, has developed his toposcope, which is intended to provide a more adequate picture of the relation of incoming patterns of stimulation to the existing activity in different areas of the cortex. Perhaps this technique may be able to go further than the EEG has thus far.

Although the title suggests that the reader will find a general discussion of brain function in relation to the problem of consciousness, the book is largely a detailed presentation of evidence concerning the reticular formation. As such, it will appeal to but a limited segment of the people who will be attracted by the title. There are, however, several papers of more general interest. A. E. Fessard analyzes the problem of conscious experience, and discusses the implications of the phenomenon for localization of function and the types of operations which the brain must perform to achieve experienced integration. K. S. Lashley discusses the mechanisms which determine the perception of stimuli, since he considers the process of awareness to be basic to conscious processes.

Whether it pays to invoke the concept of consciousness is still a debatable point. As D. O. Hebb has pointed out in the symposium, consciousness as a phenomenon can only be hypothesized from behavior. By explicitly describing the acts which make up the higher behavior of animals and men—acts which involve, for instance, awareness and attention to stimuli, discrimination of motivational states, transposition in learning behavior—we spell out the basis of our belief that consciousness as a phenomenon does exist. But when we have fully described such higher functions, it may well turn out that the concept of consciousness as such will have become superfluous.

Pregnant Parallelograms

Edwin Rausch

Struktur und Metrik figural-optischer Wahrnehmung

Frankfurt-am-Main: Verlag Dr. Waldemar Kramer, 1952. Pp. xiv + 404.

By ENDEL TULVING

Harvard University

FROM TIME immemorial inquisitive men have sought to solve the problem of the relationship between the real and the perceived world, nor has the story of their failures discouraged others from similar attempts. The latest explorer to cross this frontier is Edwin Rausch of the University at Frankfurt-am-Main.

His book is essentially an oversize research report. His theoretically oriented ambition, however, warrants its classification as another effort to clarify the difference between perceived and real visual space. Any evaluation of the book has to take cognizance both of Rausch's experimental work and of his theoretical speculations.

A patient reader, who bears with the author through four hundred dense pages of presentation, manipulation and elaboration of experimental findings, gets eventually a profound and interesting inside view of the behavior of geometrical figures in geometrical illusions. Rausch

shows that geometrical illusions are much more susceptible of explanation than has generally been believed. Politely but firmly pointing out how the ideas of his predecessors have been in error, he unveils the correct explanation.

Presently we find him depriving the ancients of their most perfect figure, the circle, and presenting a new contender for this honor. The figure which possesses the highest degree of *Prägnanz* is the rectangle! In his very matter-of-fact style, with many remarks in parentheses on every page, he records the reasons for his choice. There are two fundamental tendencies, he urges, tendencies which govern our perception of the figural-optical space. One is the tendency toward the orthogonality, when straight lines meet each other at an angle, the other is the tendency of a distorted figure toward the ideal figure of which it is a distortion. The final outcome of this argument is Rausch's claim that visual space is fundamentally a Cartesian system of coordinates.

Sometimes, of course, it happens that the real world contains lines which are not straight and parallel or orthogonal to each other, lines which thus violate the Cartesian principles. On these occasions the principles of *Prägnanz* must fight it out with the physical world, with the phenomenal object as the prize. In good Gestalt fashion these duels inevitably end in a stalemate: the perceived figure tends to be midway between the real and the ideal. The old problems of why a really distorted figure in the physical world never becomes a perfect figure in perception still remains a mystery, not only to the reader, but probably also to Rausch.

THIS SPECULATION about the structure of the perceived space provides Rausch with a background against which he appraises the findings of a number of simple experiments upon those geometrical illusions that involve the perception of such distorted figures as parallelograms and rhombuses. Rausch could well have dedicated his book to the geometer who discovered parallelograms, without which he would hardly have had a book to write. A more thorough study of parallelograms would be hard to conceive.

Rausch is particularly interested in trying to evaluate the illusions in a quantitative manner, and he spends much effort in an attempt to arrive at a phenomenal parallelogram, corresponding to a particular real parallelogram, or, as he puts it, the "phenogram," corresponding to a given "ontogram." That he does not quite succeed is not surprising in view of the fact that he treats his experimentally obtained values, often based on but a few observers, as the real values of the phenogram, instead of regarding them as means of a particular sample, somewhere in the neighborhood of the real value.

The present reviewer admits that the chain of relations between the Cartesian structure of the visual space, perfect figures, orthogonal tendencies, and the interpretation of the experimental findings in terms of the postulated Cartesian structure of the visual space sounds to him very much like a snake swallowing its own tail. In any case no theoretical argument can be better than the empirical evidence on which it is based. In the present instance the soundness of experimental procedures is crucial, since the author is dealing with a subject matter from which most psychologists, at least in America, would shy away; and the author's casual way of performing and reporting experiments will leave many of his readers dissatisfied. We must, however, give Dr. Rausch credit for his scholarly, systematic, and extremely thorough handling of his material. It is his own apparent enthusiasm about his subject matter and his really patient perusal of the many ramifications of the general problem area that compel our respect, even though we may disagree with him on other counts.

No one would ever take this book with him to a desert island were he permitted to take only one. On the other hand, it is certain that many investigators who are interested in the problem of geometrical illusions will gain insight from the book if they but have patience to read it.



A Pioneering Naturalist

Charles Judson Herrick

Clarence Luther Herrick: Pioneer Naturalist, Teacher, and Psychobiologist

Transactions of the American Philosophical Society. 1955, N. S. 45 (1). Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1955. Pp. 85. \$1.50.

BY RICHARD M. ELLIOTT

University of Minnesota

THIS MEMOIR, with portrait, chronology, and bibliography, is an account of the life and accomplishments of Clarence Herrick by his younger brother, ten years his junior, and now the eminent retired neurologist of the University of Chicago.

Clarence Herrick was born in newly-settled Minneapolis in 1858. His career probably received its general direction from his belonging to a diminutive and remarkable *Young Naturalists' Society*, a convincing example of the incubation stages of scientific investigation, since it similarly influenced two other boys who later achieved scientific distinction. Herrick is depicted soon after his student years at the University of Minnesota as "an ecologist in the broadest meaning of that word, . . . he took notice of animal behavior in its relations with the environment, of bodily structure as the mechanism of action, and of man's place in the economy of nature" (p. 34).

An early interest in psychology led him, in 1885, after a year in Germany, to publish a translation of the dictated summaries of lectures given by Lotze. He added a chapter of his own on the brain and hoped the whole would serve "as a first book of psychology where for any reason the physiological side does not receive special attention in the philosophical department" (p. 34). A year later this work was supplanted by Ladd's more careful translation of the same material. It seems that Herrick, a man of driving initiative, showed throughout his life a certain incapacity for prudent calculation and thorough work.

At twenty-seven Herrick was appointed professor at Denison University.

There his interests crystallized as "teaching and research in psychobiology" and he proved himself "a maker of scientific men." He published numerous papers and founded the still flourishing Denison Scientific Association. There followed a three-year interlude at the University of Cincinnati and a distressing episode when Herrick accepted appointment at the University of Chicago, only to withdraw immediately, charging President Harper with breaking faith because he proceeded to appoint other men to teach courses in physiological and comparative psychology over which Herrick had thought he was to have charge.

In 1894 Herrick's Denison career was cruelly ended by tuberculosis. Though he went to New Mexico, his unstable and driving temperament would not let him rest. He continued to write, especially on the relations of neurology and psychology. As its second president, he helped put the University of New Mexico on its feet. He died in 1904.

Herrick founded the *Journal of Comparative Neurology*. His brother writes of this, "There was no apparent demand for such a periodical except in the mind of the founder" (p. 71). "The entire content of the first number and most of the remainder of volume 1 came from Clarence's laboratory in Cincinnati" (p. 72). Yet by the end of Volume 3, just when the editor's health failed, contributions were coming in from most of the neurological research centers in this country and a few from Europe. At that point the younger brother took over most of the journal's management.

Judson Herrick regards "the conception and inauguration of a comprehensive and cooperative program of psychological research as my brother's most important contribution to science" (p. 60). On the same page, however, this rather striking claim is whittled down to praise of the clarity of vision and "prescient insight" of a frontiersman. "The neurological and psychological papers were all incomplete and reconnaissance studies, mere reports of progress, and he did not live to synthesize them as he planned to do" (p. 60).

As Herrick was less and less able to spend time in the laboratory, his interest shifted to theoretical topics. He came out for a systematic position he called "dynamic realism," a "radically natu-

ralistic position." "... body and mind are phases of one reality" (p. 75). "The elements of experience are all acts" (p. 74). "... the key to the problems of structure is behavior" (p. 76). Herrick was thus indeed a pioneer. But nowhere, apparently, did he come out with a powerful, elaborated formulation of his views that would have written his name conspicuously and firmly into the early history of psychological objectivism.

Judson Herrick tells us himself that he has not attempted an objective appraisal of his brother's work, rather that he has aimed "to see life as he saw it, with the empathy that our fraternal association provided" (p. 8). So he has, and the result is moving. Even where material may be irrelevant, it remains interesting. The reader will remember that the author is a younger brother who through his senior's example and guidance found his feet turned into paths that led to eminence, and that the experimentalist Judson differed from the pioneer Clarence in learning how stern and jealous a mistress is science.

Prejudice

Gerhart Saenger

The Social Psychology of Prejudice

New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953. Pp. xv + 304. \$4.00.

BY ARTHUR R. COHEN

Yale University

THIS BOOK is a comprehensive review of much of the knowledge we have concerning the roots and effects of prejudice and the means of improving intergroup relations. The author's primary intention in writing this book was to provide a "handbook" for persons interested in the prevention and cure of prejudice and discrimination. He also believes that it can serve as a textbook for courses in "intergroup relations," "race differences," and related subjects.

In the first section of the book Saenger deals with the problem, nature, and extent of prejudice and discrimination, the second with their causes, and the third with what can be done about them. In

the first section he introduces a number of concepts basic to the later discussion, such as beliefs and stereotypes, and stresses their importance in understanding prejudice. Prejudice, discrimination, and segregation are defined and separated and the costs of prejudice to society and the individual are discussed.

To this reviewer's mind, the second section is the most important in the book. It begins with an excellent discussion of genetics and race, presented in a clear and straightforward fashion. Many of the current myths surrounding such issues as race hybridization are dispelled and the differences between the genetic and the cultural determinants of "racial behavior" are sharply etched. In Chapter 5 Saenger takes up intelligence and in a few concise pages presents the central issues of the race-intelligence problem.

The author then discusses personality and culture and the general range of psychological factors in the determination of prejudice and discrimination. He shows how economic and social organizational factors limit and provide targets for the psychological manifestations of prejudice. He reviews social class and illustrates cultural differences and their interaction with each other and with personality phenomena in determining prejudice and discrimination. Though the author's grasp of these factors is exceedingly sophisticated, it seems to the reviewer, nevertheless, that the class concept is introduced too quickly and used too frequently as a general rubric in explaining prejudice. A more general discussion of the concept and its utility might have been introduced before its widespread use. In addition, the various levels of conceptualization are sometimes confused. The author sometimes jumps back and forth among explanations by class, personality, and culture with little apparent rationale. This confusion undoubtedly reflects the general theoretical unclarity among these concepts and some explicit recognition of this state of affairs would have been welcome.

THE CHAPTERS on the authoritarian personality and the learning of prejudice are well written and comprehensive, and they weave together a good deal of the research material gathered within the past few years. The authoritarian per-

sonality material is complete in its coverage and in the story it tells, yet it seems to be just a bit too pat and glossy. The different studies on the authoritarian personality taken together have probably shown all the trends stated by the author, but nowhere does he mention that what he is presenting is a kind of statistical norm, an ideal-type picture of an authoritarian personality, and that a given "authoritarian personality" does not necessarily show such a variety of negative characteristics. There have, moreover, been some recent studies investigating trait complexes of 'authoritarians' and 'non-authoritarians' which have tended to blur the distinction the author makes between "democratic" and "authoritarian" personalities.

Saenger gives a particularly good discussion of the problem of the persistence of stereotypes in the face of evidence for the absence of personality differences between racial and ethnic groups and then shows how this seeming paradox can be resolved once it is realized that while middle-class and educated members (students) of minority groups serve as subjects in personality research, contact with members of minority groups is apt to be made through members of the uneducated lower classes.

The last section contains a good review of the action implications of the material presented in the preceding chapters. Included in it is a discussion of re-education, mass communication, and contact between racial and ethnic groups. The latter discussion was especially impressive. Here the author takes up every facet of the contact issue and makes clear, through constant use of research findings, where contact alone makes a difference and where other factors must also be considered. He also gives an excellent review of the field of action research and community self-surveys. One cannot help feeling, however, that in spite of all the general principles and recommendations in this section, progress will be slow and action uncertain. There is a real paucity of scientific knowledge in this sphere.

In conclusion, Saenger should be congratulated for his wide grasp of the literature, for his recourse to research findings, and for his thorough exploitation of them. He has produced a very good review of the area. It should be

said, however, that the theoretical returns from this book appear to be small. It was not, of course, the author's intention to produce a book where theoretical problems are heightened and new hypotheses are specifically put forth; yet one cannot but regret that all this energy and coverage of the field could not also have yielded more fruitful theoretical consequences.

Psychology's Fields

F. L. Marcuse (Ed.)

Areas of Psychology

New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954. Pp. 532. \$5.00.

BY ELEANOR O. MILLER

Illinois College

EVERY CLASSROOM teacher searches eagerly for material to give undergraduate students to tell them *about* psychology, how and where it is used, as well as to give them an elementary knowledge and understanding of basic principles. There has been a veritable flood of elementary textbooks of various kinds and levels of difficulty in recent years, with new ones appearing every year. But after that first course—what next?

F. L. Marcuse suggests one solution in his *Areas of Psychology*, a text which could be used after the introductory course or supplementary to it. He says his purpose is "to give the individual an idea of the principles, problems, and procedures which are to be observed in the different areas in which psychologists are working." The book is designed for the non-major student who desires "further general information" and also for the major student who desires to obtain "some idea of problems and methods which he will meet in the different areas of psychology." Probably all classroom teachers are eager for a book with such a purpose and plan. How well does this book fulfill those intentions?

The twelve "areas" in the book vary from the usual subject-matter courses of social, child, abnormal, educational, and industrial psychology to the more specialized fields of vocational guidance,

legal psychology, and aesthetics. There are chapters on criminal and correctional psychology, clinical, physiological, and comparative psychology. They are written by fifteen different psychologists. It would be advantageous for the student to know something of these writers and of their competence to select the material presented, but the editor gives no biographical data. Some would be known to instructors, but students who are being taught to judge with care the materials written would be unlikely to know the writers of whom twelve are listed in the 1955 Directory of the APA, five from Cornell and five with other New York addresses. Certainly professional achievements of some of them would interest and inform the student readers.

THE SUMMARIES in this book suffer from the usual fault of trying to say too much in too little space. While the writers of these chapters have usually done a good job—as the reviewer notes particularly in MacLeod's discussion of social psychology and in the two chapters on industrial psychology—the material is too condensed and too abstract for the undergraduate student.

The chief value of the book lies in the more specialized chapters which contain material difficult to find elsewhere. Weld's chapter on legal psychology is worthwhile material for prospective lawyers. Unfortunately, however, the part of this chapter on perception is woefully out of date, omitting recent experiments which even we teachers 'in the provinces' are now presenting to our students. Corsini's excellent chapter on criminal and correctional psychology will be of great help for these pre-law students.

Gundlach's chapter on aesthetics is a much-needed presentation of this subject for the students of humanities. It is doubtful if aesthetics is really an 'area' of psychology but that same criticism can be leveled at other chapters. We have needed for a long time much more material in the general field of aesthetics.

The volume includes some worthwhile teaching devices, annotated bibliographies, and an unusual outline at the beginning of each chapter. These outlines vary in their lucidity but at least the instructor will find them useful. There is

an adequate index and very readable type. It is unfortunate, perhaps, that the publisher chose such a light binding—the library copies will not long be presentable.

In general we need more books of this kind to keep ourselves and our students alert to what is going on in the psychological world. To quote the final sentence in the book, which is also the final sentence of Gundlach's chapter, "At every turn there are exciting and significant psychological research problems which await solution."

Discipline

James L. Hymes, Jr.

Behavior and Misbehavior: A Teacher's Guide to Action

New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. 140.

BY MILLIE ALMY

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS LITTLE book, intended to guide and inspire teachers toward more effective teaching of discipline, appears destined for popularity. In informal, frequently repetitive, but generally forceful terms, the author distinguishes between stable, normal youngsters and those who are troubled, indicating that both groups require discipline. With the stable children, teachers must explain and discuss, find ways to channel energies in constructive directions, sometimes reward and sometimes, particularly when the 'law' needs to be learned quickly and definitely, punish. In contrast, the upset children, those to whom life has already dealt too many hurts, demand deeper understanding, greater protection and more rewards.

Like most *How-to* books, this one oversimplifies. To distinguish the child who needs remedial help in learning discipline from the so-called normal child and then to provide appropriate teaching is a task requiring something more than kindly intentions. Nevertheless, the book should serve not only to stimulate the teacher's interest in the complexities of children's behavior and misbehavior, but also to give him some important initial clues to understanding them.

General Psychology

HENRY E. GARRETT
Columbia University

This text provides a balanced treatment of modern psychology for the beginning student. It presents fundamental principles concisely, clearly, and authoritatively, and it treats those applications of psychology of greatest interest and benefit to the undergraduate. *Projects in Psychology, A Workbook to Accompany Garrett's General Psychology*, makes the study of psychology more meaningful to the student by enabling him to verify principles on his own.

Human Development and Learning

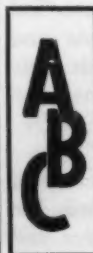
LESTER D. CROW and ALICE CROW
Brooklyn College

Emphasizing the human growth and development approach in teaching, this new text integrates the psychological principles of learning, the mental hygiene implications of individual behavior, the techniques of evaluation, and the importance of teacher guidance.

Psychology of Personal and Social Adjustment

HENRY CLAY LINDGREN
San Francisco State College

This book offers the student practical help with his everyday problems. It is down-to-earth, readable, and free from jargon. The author includes concepts developed in the fields of group processes, interpersonal relations, and general semantics.



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COLLEGE DIVISION
55 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, N. Y.

How Children Grow Up

Jean W. Macfarlane, Lucile Allen, and Marjorie P. Honzik

A Developmental Study of the Behavior Problems of Normal Children Between Twenty-one Months and Fourteen Years

Berkeley: University of California Press, 1954. Pp. vii + 222. \$2.25.

By RICHARD A. LITTMAN

University of Oregon

IT IS GOOD to have this report from the famed Guidance Study of the University of California. Since its inception in 1929, there have been many other long-range studies promulgated, a good number of them begun, but few continued or completed. This is odd. One would think that, in studying development, the thing to do is to study children as they develop. Yet, beside the changes in interests, physique, motor and mental abilities, but little of what we take to be the data of developmental psychology have come from observing development; in this field the short-run, cross-sectional or *ex post facto* investigation has been the rule. The authors are, indeed, to be applauded for their persistence, patience, carefulness, research skill, and wise ideas.

The major idea behind the Guidance Study has been to remedy the deficiencies of developmental research which is based upon clinical subjects, that is to say, to avoid small samples, particularism, systematic biases in obtaining subjects, and uncontrolled interference with behavior. There can be no question that our present knowledge about the development of personality has been achieved in spite of these limitations. Even in 1929, however, it was already clear that our ability to generalize broadly in developmental psychology requires the selection of subjects without regard to the problems they present. Selection in advance by birth registry, afterwards awaiting the work of nature and her agents—parents, teachers, peers and psychologists—would permit a more general picture to emerge. And that is exactly what this Guidance Study has done.

There have, of course, been a number of previous progress reports, and there

will be many more. The present monograph deals with only a portion of the sample—the 'normal' children, who, with their parents, received no aid, and were involved only with interviews and assessment procedures. The 'normal' group contrasts with the Guidance Group who received counseling and other kinds of aid. Although the Guidance Group is mentioned only casually in this report, a significant finding is that its members seem to have profited from their contacts with the counseling staff, for only one-fourth as many Guidance-Group parents as control-group parents were divorced.

THE DATA reported are based on maternal interviews, giving us almost no information about such things as the 'projective systems' of the children or, indeed, verified data concerning the children's behavior. It is also true that the problems studied are more characteristic of the problems that were important several decades ago than they are of contemporary interest—at least the contemporary interests of personality theorists. Another difficulty arose from the necessity of dealing with an urban group which, as usual, become increasingly skewed toward upper middle-class social status as time went on.

But, let us not quibble: the general outcome of the study is impressive. The investigators have indeed taken a first step—I look upon it as a long stride—toward the objective "of filling a major gap of empirical fact with respect to non-pathological groups."

The interviews covered forty-six common problems, sorted into four large groups: *biological functioning* (dreams, soiling, food finickiness, exhibitionism, etc.); *motor manifestations* (tics, nail-biting, speech, etc.); *social standards* (lying, truancy, stealing); and *personality patterns* (selfishness, excessive dependence, mood swings, negativism, jealousy, etc.). The changes in these problems, with age, are reported in terms of sex, intelligence, birth order, health, and maternal characteristics and make a good deal of sense. Many of the distributions are bimodal, with one mode at the preschool level and the other at pubescence.

One of the most interesting findings arises from the intercorrelations for the

fourteen problems at two age levels, 5 and 12. While the total number of significant correlations were about the same at the two ages, they differed markedly in respect of sex. At age 5, the girls showed 49 significant intercorrelations while the boys had only 17; at age 12, this difference was reversed with the boys having 49 that were significant, the girls only 26. The relevance of this finding for understanding the development of sex-role characteristics scarcely requires comment.

This finding is just an earnest of what the study holds for the future. It is unlikely, however, that we shall ever be able to appreciate the personal and scholarly qualities that these investigators bury in their factual reports. More power, say I, to this investigation, and more glory to the investigators! They deserve it.

Social Psychology for Germany

Peter R. Hofstätter

Einführung in die Sozialpsychologie

Stuttgart and Vienna: Humboldt-Verlag, 1954. Pp. 535. Price: DM.-12.50.

By GEORGE B. VETTER

New York University

IN CONTRAST to the American average of two new texts per year, the appearance of an Introduction to Social Psychology in Germany is something of an event, regardless of the merits of the text. Here, however, we have a competent and stimulating piece of scholarship, one that might well encourage academic interest in the subject in a country where it has been pretty generally neglected. Should the reader of this volume expect a summary of German thought and research he would be disappointed, for there is little here of German contributions. On the other hand, the German reader now has available a competent survey of what is largely American social psychology. A rough check on this author's bibliography shows some 620 items, 560 American as contrasted with about 50 German references (of which

twenty are to previous publications by our author!). The predominance of American references may be partly due to the fact that the book was planned and written while the author was lecturing at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the Catholic University of America.

Except for a brief chapter devoted to a general historical survey of the social sciences, the entire text is almost exclusively devoted to a critical survey and appraisal of the more recent fact-finding literature of the social sciences—from sociologists, psychologists, and anthropologists. These findings are contrasted with or compared to the theories of the classical philosophers. The author's grasp and appraisal of contemporary research is competent and objective. He writes with enthusiasm and a minimum of the traditional German tendency to obscure rather than reveal the ideas of the author.

The general treatment of the subject matter is organized around (a) the relation of the individual to his culture, (b) the process of the socialization of the individual, which the author treats as a problem in the psychology of learning, and (c) the nature and functions of social groups. A notable omission is the entire field of attitude measurement and opinion polls. This reviewer searched hopelessly but in vain for evidence that this author might have something to contribute to the understanding of the fantastic events in Germany since 1932. They are not even mentioned! Not even the chapter on leadership ventures far beyond the studies of American gangs and of military leadership; the text is silent on the recent political superleaderships. Instead Hoffstätter both opens and closes his volume with the same speech of Mephistopheles: "Du glaubst zu schieben, und du wirst geschoben." Leaders, he would seem to believe, are more important in small gangs than in large states! Yet do not underestimate his chapter on *The State and the Superstate*, for it contains some keen insights.

In his psychology the author seems to prefer volitional or free-will concepts to a general determinism, yet he is obviously fascinated by the recent work on conditioned reactions in speech, meanings, and the higher thought processes. Religion and theology receive from him but a polite deference and no objective analysis

whatsoever. In respect of contemporary world dilemmas he attributes a greater potency to prayer and the grace of God than to human understanding, an understanding to which he has made a not insignificant contribution.

A text such as this deserves a far better index. Some readers might find the author's explanatory diagrams useful but this reviewer failed after many trials.

Sex: Fad and Opinion

John F. Oliven

**Sexual Hygiene and Pathology:
A Manual for the Physician**
Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.,
1955. Pp. xiii + 481. \$10.00.

BY ALBERT ELLIS

New York City

BOOKS ON SEX may be assessed from two important aspects: the accuracy of their facts and the objectivity of their attitudes. On the first of these counts, Oliven's *Sexual Hygiene and Pathology* hits a fairly high mark; on the second count it makes a good, but not always successful, try.

The book, the author tells us at the start, "is designed to fill the needs of practicing physicians, medical students and certain groups of ancillary medical workers for information on sexual matters as they are of interest to the physician." This aim it sticks to in a consistent, logical manner by covering most of the important facts about sex which a physician would be expected to know and to be consulted about, including sexuality in childhood, sexuality in the second decade, sexuality of the normal adult, and sexual pathology. Although Dr. Oliven's references are pitifully brief (only occasionally does he cite authors, and never so much as the title or year of their works), he has obviously done a great deal of reading in the field and seems to have had considerable medical and psychiatric experience himself. As a result, his book is a good compendium of many important facts now known about human sexuality. It includes, moreover, many healthfully sceptical references to so-called facts in support of which there is, as yet, no indisputable experimental or clinical evidence.

ON the attitudinal side, Dr. Oliven strives mightily to be as objective as possible, and usually he succeeds. At least, he succeeds better than do most other authors in this controversial field. But from time to time an allegiance to conventional mores or orthodox psychiatric thinking gets the better of him, and he lapses into dubious attitudinal statements. He notes, for example, that the Oedipus situation "seems to represent a normal and necessary stage in the child's development" (p. 8); that "of course, strict hands-off directives must be given to forestall children's picking up of discarded condoms as playthings, or embarrassing the family by showing domestic devices to their little friends" (p. 23); that in our society overfrank sex education by parents "is almost bound to have unfavorable effects of some kind on the child" (p. 32); that "the psychic ill-effects on the average child tend, on the whole, to be more 'malignant' " where the parents are divorced rather than where they remain unhappily together (p. 247); and that "frigidity, in the strict sense, is the inability to achieve orgasm during sexual intercourse," rather than the inability to achieve orgasm in some form of coital or extracoital relations (p. 352). In statements like these, Dr. Oliven's underlying conventional biases become fairly obvious.

Sexual Hygiene and Pathology also contains several factual statements of dubious authenticity. Thus, we are told that "urination during maximal erection is not possible because of reflex and sphincter inhibition" (p. 159); that the best treatment for uncomplicated male impotence is abstinence from coitus for six to twelve months (p. 336); that the adult who masturbates regularly "is apt to be an emotionally immature, self-indulgent and often moderately inhibited, anxious and passive person" (p. 376); and that "in true homosexuality two factors are gaining increasing recognition: the existence of a congenital predisposition and, 'grafted' upon this, an unfavorable personality development which fixates the growing boy on the wrong sex objects" (p. 443). Actually, there is considerable evidence to show that urination is possible during maximal erection; that active intercourse, with psychotherapeutic help, is one of the best treatments for

impotence; that adult masturbation, unless it is specifically employed to avoid other forms of sex relations, is not a sign of immaturity; and that there is little or no congenital predisposition in most cases of exclusive homosexuality.

While Oliven's book is hardly definitive or unbeatable, it does largely fulfill the purposes for which it was written, and will suffice as an up-to-date sex manual for the physician until a somewhat more objective and scholarly text comes along.



Textbook Materials

Lee J. Cronbach (Ed.), with Robert Bierstedt, Foster McMurray, Wilbur Schramm, and Willard B. Spalding

Text Materials in Modern Education

Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1955. Pp. viii + 216. \$2.50.

BY JAMES B. STROUD

State University of Iowa

IN THIS work *text material* means printed instructional materials of a kind that can be placed in every pupil's hands—workbooks, pamphlets, and basic textbooks. The book reflects the interests of the five authors, namely, educational psychology, philosophy of education, sociology, communication, and educational administration.

Controversies over the proper place of text materials in teaching are examined in the light of educational movements. The authors seem to agree with many educational theorists that text materials are used more extensively than is ideally desirable; but they recognize that we do not generally have ideal schools. Teachers and professors of education are likely to think of this book as a constructive one. The publishers and authors of textbooks come in for justifiable commendation, justifiable because all in all the business operations are so small. It is surprising to learn that the gross annual volume of sales at all educational levels is just over \$150,000,000—smaller, it is said, than the annual volume of the dog-food business.

One of the better features of the book is the fact that the discussion of text materials is carried on in the context of education and educational psychology. The design and use of text materials are treated in the light of the psychology of learning—as it is found in the literature of educational psychology. Aside from any interest he may have in text materials as such, the student of education and of educational psychology stands to profit from reading this volume, particularly as he sees the facts and theories of his discipline applied to problems of writing and of using text materials. This section of the book presents a critical analysis of the text as a teaching instrument, taking up nearly half the volume. Textbook authors, the publishing business, and selection and distribution occupy the rest.

The reader may feel that such diverse material does not belong in a single book as he moves from topic to topic—from theories of education, through the learning process, sociological factors influencing text authors, processes of manufacturing and distributing books, to the text in use, although the title does, indeed, suggest the kind of unity the authors had in mind.

The volume, in paper binding, is appealing in appearance. In literary style and in thought it compares favorably with the better works in education.

Psychosurgery's Puzzle

Mary Frances Robinson and Walter Freeman

Psychosurgery and the Self

New York: Grune & Stratton, 1954. Pp. 118. \$3.00.

BY H. E. KING

Tulane University Medical School

THE FUNDAMENTAL question raised by psychosurgery—what is the nature of the psychological change produced—has never had a satisfactory answer. Ever since Moniz originated the lobotomy procedure in 1936, psychologists have sought a way to specify and to measure just what it is that can be altered by psychosurgery, but thus far their efforts have met with little success.

In this monograph Robinson and Freeman say again, what others have before, that our failure is owing to the fact that we have not yet properly identified the essence of the change of behavior in postlobotomy, and that we cannot expect performance on standard psychological tests to reflect the change which is brought about since it falls outside our range of measurement. The author's approach to this problem hinges on the identification of an element in the behavior of the postlobotomy patient which they believe to be characteristic and to hold the clue to an explanation of the changes manifested clinically,—a lessened concern by the individual with his own past and future, lessened as if they belonged to another person. They interpret their patients' postoperative personalities to be simpler, more shallow, more "arrested at the present," and hypothesize that "psychosurgery changes the structure of the self through reducing the capacity for the feeling of self-continuity." Although this abstraction is unquestionably an oversimplification of a complicated clinical syndrome, at least it leaves the reader in no doubt about what the authors deem significant.

To test their idea further the authors have designed and applied two interview techniques intended to point up the attitudes of the patient toward his past, present and future. This approach, which is actually an improved form of collecting clinical data by a systematic interview, is a sensible one which has received surprisingly little use in previous studies of the problem. The findings are contrasted with those obtained from a similar group of patients recovering without psychosurgical therapy. Although this method is rather crude, Robinson and Freeman are able to demonstrate their point, although one feels that the positive nature of the findings may be as much a result of the method itself as a change in the qualities of behavior under study. That the empirical findings are directly related to the authors' concept of self and self-continuity is not clear, however, as the authors themselves note.

This is a book by and for the clinician. Its findings are more exploratory than explanatory, yet they hold promise of leading the course of investigation of this baffling problem in a more fruitful direction. The book's value would appear

to lie more in the inventiveness of its approach to the clinical problem than in its speculation upon the nature of the self, and it is to be hoped that a report on a larger body of data, to which a greater variety of questions have been put, will be forthcoming.

A Psychological Columbus

Leonardo Ancona

La psicologia sociale negli Stati Uniti d'America

Milan: Università Cattolica del S. Cuore, 1954. Pp. xi + 154. \$1.60.

BY GERALD S. BLUM

University of Michigan

IN THE INTRODUCTION to this monograph, Fr. Agostino Gemelli, Director of the Laboratory of Experimental Psychology at Catholic University in Milan, vividly describes how, with the aid of a Rockefeller grant, he despatched his chief lieutenant, Leonardo Ancona, to the United States to learn first-hand about recent developments in social psychology. Dr. Ancona subsequently spent a year in the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the University of Michigan and several months at Swarthmore College. The result is an imposing summary and critique which encompasses the whole field of social psychology, including a detailed historical perspective.

Fr. Gemelli quotes Ancona's reluctance to publish criticisms of the activities of the Research Center for Group Dynamics because of his personal friendships there. The reviewer, having recently completed a research project in Italy, one made possible by the devoted cooperation of the very same Dr. Ancona, now finds himself also with reluctance to overcome if he is to maintain a comparable objectivity. Yet he hopes to succeed as well as Dr. Ancona.

The reader will inevitably be impressed by the scope and scholarly character of the author's approach. In tracing the evolution of social psychology all the way from its historical antecedents down to prominent current issues, he demonstrates unusual skill in organization, clarity and conciseness of expression, and

a flair for critical appraisal. All the major movements, institutional activities, and publications of past and present are meticulously expounded and dissected. Many of the criticisms, however, though refreshing in their forthrightness, reflect biases which are likely to be accepted only with difficulty by those reared with the values of modern American psychology.

An examination of the author's evaluation of the Research Center for Group Dynamics helps to illustrate this point. He begins with an attack upon the few investigations which have made use of a psychoanalytically oriented conceptualization of personality because they negate man's free will and "individual subjectivity"; and he then proceeds to brand the more typical field studies and action research on group process with the opprobrious label "applied." Even the *F* scale of Frenkel-Brunswick et al. is raked over for its "anti-religious prejudice" and its use of a "politically ambiguous term, fascism." Instead Ancona champions a purely phenomenological approach, thus finding the work of Asch at Swarthmore most to his liking.

Although there is bound to be disagreement when cultures differ, everyone can pay tribute to this insightful summary of social psychology provided by a foreign visitor. Still more important is the fact that this critique exposes Italian psychologists and students to a body of knowledge previously unavailable.

Dynamic Words

Joseph W. Wulfeck and Edward M. Bennett

The Language of Dynamic Psychology: As Related to Motivation Research

New York: McGraw-Hill, 1954. Pp. 111. \$4.00.

BY I. E. FARBER

State University of Iowa

THIS SLIM volume contains some five hundred terms in what is purported to be the language of Dynamic Psychology, which, according to the authors, is made up of social and clinical psychology, sociology, cultural

anthropology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis. The authors explicitly deny that the relatively high frequency of psychoanalytic terms and of psychoanalytic definitions of other terms constitutes an endorsement of Freudian psychology or a lack of endorsement of other views.

One reason why a dictionary of this sort is necessary, say the authors, is that "Communication in the sciences requires the use of precise terms." And "it is becoming essential for the man of affairs to acquire a working acquaintance with terms like these in order to keep abreast of the knowledge being accumulated about human motivation." The sponsoring committee of the Advertising Research Foundation hopefully predicts that, read either as a dictionary or an introductory textbook, "this 'guide' will help the advertising man to keep his terminology and his understanding abreast of current activities in the field of motivation research."

The following represents the outcome of one attempt by the reviewer to discover the degree of terminological precision, amount of knowledge, and level of understanding of contemporary psychology that might be achieved by reading this book either as a dictionary or a text:

Psychology is the study of *behavior*, or in a more limited sense, the study of the human *mind*. *Behavior* is something the individual does. It can be seen, heard, or observed in some direct way. Behavioristic psychologists (it is not made clear whether there are other kinds) are little concerned with such things as *attitudes*, *thoughts*, and *feelings*, except to the extent that these phenomena can be directly observed. *Attitudes* and *feelings* relate to *affect*, which "is used all over the area of dynamic psychology. It always seems to have some meaning of non-intellectual *emotions*." *Emotion* is "a difficult term." It involves *feeling* (*affect*) and has both physical and *mental* elements. *Mental* relates to the *mind*, "a hypothetical construct... of psychologists and philosophers to aid them in thinking about things which at present cannot be handled adequately in the concrete physical terms of physiology, biology, and chemistry."

The authors are aware that some of the words in the "guide" (not necessarily those given above) may "rouse a feeling

of impatience or annoyance in the minds of the practical advertising executive. He may ask what he is supposed to do with them" (p. 9). It seems highly probable that the attitude (affect) thus expressed will be shared by a large number of otherwise impractical psychologists.

Psychiatrist's Satellite?

Louis Linn

A Handbook of Hospital Psychiatry

New York: International Universities Press, 1955. Pp. xxii + 560. \$10.00

BY HENRY P. DAVID

Lafayette Clinic and Wayne University

LINN's handbook is a primer for psychiatric residents. Its aim, "to furnish practical answers to many of the questions which arise in mental hospital work" is accomplished by means of thirty-seven chapters and five appendices, ranging from treatment descriptions to a characterologic inventory. In fact, the volume is so encyclopedic that it might well have been subtitled "A Practical Guide for Mental Health Talks."

As an introductory text in psychiatric education, its view of psychology is important. Linn seems to consider psychologists mainly as diagnostic testers, whose "major" and perhaps only function is to provide psychiatrists with additional information that they may or may not use in formulating a patient's problem. While residents are urged to become familiar with testing, and even do some of it themselves, they are warned that test interpretation "is time-consuming and therefore uninviting to the overburdened psychiatrist" (p. 138).

The author's prescription for keeping the psychologist out of the psychiatrist's

hair is devastatingly simple; keep him busy testing. "It must be abundantly clear that this is his major function and if his services in this regard are utilized to the fullest, it will leave him little time for anything else" (p. 141). Whatever spare hours remain may be devoted to research. However, the suggestion that "the psychologist's help may be recruited in at least an advisory capacity in planning clinical research" (p. 141) seems unusually patronizing, even in this context.

The author labels psychotherapy as controversial and dismisses it in an offhand way. He questions "whether this represents the most effective utilization of the psychologist's specific ability within the therapeutic community of the mental hospital" (p. 141). He adds "that a dynamically oriented hospital with a rational program of therapy and an active research department is not able to spare its psychologist for treatment" (p. 142). While some psychologists might tend to agree, few would support so rigid a dictum against any therapy training within a hospital setting.

There are many excellent chapters and valuable contributions in this handbook, but psychology has been done a disservice. It is to be regretted that a teacher in psychiatry should wish to indoctrinate his students with a view of psychologists as little more than test technicians with special statistical skills. This seems all the more unfortunate when that teacher also claims to be "dynamic," championing such concepts as "treatment team" and "therapeutic community."

As a basic text for psychiatric residents, Linn's volume may undo much that has been slowly achieved. Perhaps we can only hope that clinical psychology will continue to gain professional stature from the further exposure of young physicians to stimulating psychologists. If psychologists continue to do their job well, future handbook authors may feel less constrained to restrict psychology's contributions to psychiatric research, training, and service.



The sun and the moon have been studied more intensively than the penal institutions at Alcatraz or Elmira.



—RAYMOND CORSINI

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JOURNAL OF COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY*

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Niles Newton

Maternal Emotions

New York: Paul B. Hoeber, 1955.
Pp. xi + 140. \$3.00.

BY EILEEN C. BLOOMINGDALE

Scarsdale, New York

THE AUTHOR, in a study based on single questionnaire interviews with 123 newly-delivered mothers, measuring correlations among replies to questions concerning childbirth, breast feeding, pregnancy, menstruation, rooming-in care and 'male envy.' Her hypothesis is that the expression of a positive attitude (accepted by the author as 'emotion') to one area of feminine function (e.g., menstruation) will be accompanied by a positive attitude to other areas of femininity. Her basic conclusion is that "women's feelings toward menstruation, pregnancy, childbirth, breast feeding, baby care and envy of men are important and should not be ignored by those who wish to understand and help women." Though this conclusion may sound platitudinous, nevertheless it seems to be all that validly arose or could arise from the methodology employed.

The prime fault in the methodology is its acceptance as emotions of responses to single, loaded, intimate questions, asked by a stranger, questions involving fundamental taboos and values. The operation of defense mechanisms preventing awareness, even in normal women, of underlying or ambivalent feelings to certain areas of femininity was ignored. Conscious distortion of replies, either to please or shock the examiner, was not considered. There was, too, a looseness in handling of the data which included the discarding of a large part of the ma-

terial because it differed from the rest. Physical factors in abnormal births and dysmenorrhea were ignored and their occurrence associated solely with a rejecting attitude toward femininity.

The data also contain many correlations that appear irrelevant, and even nonsensical, and there are numerous inconsistencies (e.g., women envious of men are found to breast-feed more successfully than the non-envious group, but women who were positive towards breast feeding were better breast feeders but *not* envious of men). Essentially ignored in her conclusions are such findings as women who express positive feelings to menstruation tend to want fewer children and have more 'nervous symptoms' six weeks postpartum; women who express negative feelings to pregnancy have more normal births and babies who gain more rapidly; women who have 'male envy' are "unusually adequate in the exercise of their female bodies in some ways," have more children and shorter, easier labors and stay married to their husbands.

The criterion of 'male envy' is so loosely determined that it is useless. A positive answer to the question, "Have you ever wished you were a man?" is taken to mean 'male envy,' without regard to the accepted observation that most women have during their early years wished to be a man, although they may presently find femininity adequately rewarding. The chapter, "Women's Envy of Men," is spent almost entirely in citing a survey from *Fortune* magazine to support the author's thesis.

Unfortunately not all experimental word in the area of feminine psychology is worthwhile. The complexities of personality dynamics cannot be sacrificed to the shibboleth of IBM objectivity without producing psychologically useless and even nonsensical results.



Too soon is one eager to believe that one's own music is the most natural and that one's own way of putting it on paper . . . is the most straightforward and efficient way of recording it, and that there is no alternative.



—A. D. FOKKER

Epitome of Human Nature

H. Harry Giles

Human Dynamics and Human Relations Education

New York: New York University Press, 1954. Pp. vii + 108. \$1.25.

BY ALBERT S. THOMPSON

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS LITTLE volume packs an amazing amount of basic information about human behavior into a few pages. The author has attempted to present, in relatively nontechnical language, an integrative theory of human dynamics, based upon the fundamental concepts of growth and belonging. In developing these two concepts, he draws upon both the physical and social sciences in explaining how individuals and societies develop.

The latter part of the discussion attempts to relate democratic society and education to the basic concepts. Since the "aim of the democratic ideal is the maximum growth of all," education and social control are necessary to ensure equality of opportunity for growth. Democracy fosters the chief condition for growth, viz., belonging. The fundamental thesis is expressed, in the final paragraph, as follows:

The coincidence of the democratic purpose with the presentation of a description of human dynamics set forth in this monograph is no accident. It is, in the author's view, a formulation that comes from two component origins: the striving of mankind for fulfillment, witnessed by the whole panorama of social history in the overthrow of tyranny, and the new insights which the human sciences add daily to the understanding of the nature of man and the universe.

This book is of value chiefly as an attempt to relate psychological principles of human behavior to social trends and to the place of education in society. Its conciseness sometimes leads to what appears to be dogmatic statements but, if the statements are taken as propositions to be tested, as the author frequently advises, the volume can serve as a stimulating guide to research in the field of human relations.

FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

In this issue CP continues the description of recent films which it began in January and continued in February. The following reviews cover *Perception*, as well as some Recordings that are useful in teaching and general education.

Perception

Demonstrations in Perception

U. S. Govt. Film, U. S. Navy Photographic Center. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 25 min., 1951. Available through United World Films, Inc., 1445 Park Ave., New York 29, N. Y. \$43.02.

The film was made by the Institute for Associated Research, Hanover Division, N. H. It presents demonstrations in perception which are part of a series of researches in this area (see Reference list below). Various sequences in this film show: (a) the "three chairs demonstration" which illustrates the importance of the retinal image, pre-established patterns of response, the discrepancy between what is 'out there' and what is perceived, and the semantic problem of 'mapping' identically different objects; (b) "the balloons demonstration," which illustrates illusions of movement through variation in size and brightness; (c) the overlay table which illustrates the perceptive effects of variable position and interposition; (d) the trapezoid and window demonstration which illustrates illusion of direction of rotation; and (e) "the distorted room demonstration," which illustrates the effects on perception of size, position, retinal image and pre-established patterns of response. The film is an interesting demonstration in visual space perception. It assumes, however, supplementary explanations, since the film itself is only a demonstration without explanatory concepts. Thus it stimulates thinking and can arouse students' curiosity for further inquiry. The use of the film for instruction requires familiarity with theories and ex-

perimental work on perception. A special guide to the interpretation and significance of the demonstrations is available.

Other Films on Perception

All 16-mm., black and white, silent, except when otherwise indicated.

1. **Color Categorizing Behavior of Rhesus Monkeys.** B. Weinstein. Color, sound, 11 min., 1947. Coronet Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago 1, Illinois.
2. **Factors in Depth Perception.** F. N. Freeman. 14 min., 1938. Psychological Cinema Register, Audio-Visual Aids Library, The Pennsylvania State Univ., University Park, Penna.
3. **Experimental Psychology of Vision.** G. M. Gilbert. Sound, 16 min., 1941. International Film Bureau, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Illinois.
4. **Fidelity of Report.** W. S. Ray. 6 min., 1946. Psychological Cinema Register.
5. **Illusions of Movement.** A Ford. 2 min. C. H. Stoelting Co., 424 N. Homan Ave., Chicago 24, Illinois.
6. **Range of Visual Perceptions.** M. Metfessel and H. Musgrave. 3 min., C. H. Stoelting Co.
7. **The Phi Phenomenon.** C. A. Ruckmick and D. U. Greenwald. 9 min. C. H. Stoelting Co.
8. **Types of Apparent Movements.** M. Metfessel and H. Musgrave. 16 min., C. H. Stoelting Co.
9. **Vision with Spatial Inversion.** N. H. Pronko and F. W. Snyder. 18 min., 1951. Psychological Cinema Register.

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3. W. H. ITTELSON. *The Ames demonstrations in perception.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1952. Pp. xvi + 88.

4. F. P. KILPATRICK. *Demonstrations in perception: a guide to their interpretation and significance.* (Supplement to the film: "Demonstrations in Perception.") Hanover, N. H.: Institute for Associated Research, 1952. Pp. 14.
5. F. P. KILPATRICK. *Human behavior from the transactional point of view.* Hanover, N. H.: Institute for Associated Research, 1952. Pp. vii + 259.
6. MERLE LAWRENCE. *Studies in human behavior.* Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949. Pp. x + 179.
7. R. L. MOONEY. *Perception, language and the part-whole problem.* The Ohio State University: Visual Demonstration Center, 1941. Pp. iii + 21.
8. R. L. MOONEY. Lecture demonstration. on perception as a transaction. Ohio State University, 1950. Pp. iii + 15.
9. R. L. MOONEY Teacher's manual on the distorted room demonstration. Ohio State University, 1951. Pp. 21.
10. MARY ALICE PRICE. Teaching mental hygiene with visual demonstrations. Ohio State University, 1950. Pp. 45.

Recordings

MANY RECORDINGS on psychological subjects are available, and their usefulness in teaching, mental health education, and general education is being recognized. The effectiveness of this medium for teaching would be greatly increased if all the recordings were provided with a guide or the complete script. Most of the available recordings require about 50 min.; a script or guide would facilitate the preparation of the audience and would also provide for further study.

The following recordings present a series of psychological problems in education. They are not provided with a guide or script. They are 33½ Lp, and each requires 44 min. actual listening time. They are available at \$6.90, through Educational Recording Services, 5922 Abernathy Dr., Los Angeles 45, California.

How the School Can Educate for Mental Health

Ralph M. Ojemann, Child Welfare Research Station, Iowa University.

The problem of education for mental health at elementary levels is presented

in terms of basic principles of personality dynamics. The speaker distinguishes between the surface approach and the causal approach in the understanding of behavior. The surface or descriptive approach is the prevailing mode in our culture and permeates all our education. The causal approach is used mostly by experts and at a stage when maladjustment is already developing. Various teaching and advising techniques conducive to the practice and learning of the causal approach are illustrated. The presentation is clear, well exemplified, and adequate for its purpose, especially when supplemented with reading references and discussion. Although the recording is intended mainly for teachers, and courses in the education of teachers, it could profitably be used also in classes in psychology.

Personality Development in the Classroom

Louis P. Thorpe, Southern California University.

This is a lecture on practical application of basic principles of personality development to school problems. It emphasizes the need for teacher-pupil-home cooperation, the recognition and understanding of behavior dynamics, and appropriate applications of contemporary knowledge on personality to various school situations. References to readings and test material are given. The recording is not only appropriate for teacher education, but also for classes on personality development and in general psychology. Its usefulness should be greatly increased by the use of the references given in the record.

Principles of Family Life Education

James A. Peterson, Marriage Counselor, University of Southern California.

The problem of marriage and preparation for marriage is presented in terms of basic psychological principles. The importance of the understanding of the dynamics of motivation, sociocultural background, and personality factors are stressed. Role playing, sociodrama, and free discussion are mentioned as good means of preparation for marriage. References to readings and films are also given. The recording constitutes a good lecture on marriage problems and could be used in classes in marriage and in general psychology. The value of the recording could be increased by use of reading references and adequate preparation for group discussion.

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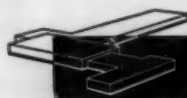
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